REPORT RESUMES

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A REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT LITERACY MATERIALS AND PROGRAMS.

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AN OBSERVATION TEAM OF SPECIALISTS VISITED SITES OF 35 SEPARATE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN MANY STATES. INTERVIEWS WERE CONDUCTED WITH ADMINISTRATORS, TEACHERS, AND ILLITERATES. MATERIALS WERE EXAMINED, CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS WERE OBSERVED, OBSERVATIONS WERE MADE OF TEACHER AND STUDENT BEHAVIOR, AND ANALYSES WERE MADE OF THE FUNDAMENTALS UNDERLYING TEACHING METHODOLOGY. THE REPORT WAS PRESENTED IN THREE PARTS. PART ONE REPORTED ON THE OBJECTIVES, THE STUDENTS, THE TEACHERS, AND MATERIALS ON THE VARIOUS PROGRAMS. PART TWO EVALUATED THE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS. PART THREE REVIEWED RESEARCH ON INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, TESTS, AND METHODS. CONCLUSIONS REPORTED WERE (1) ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION PROGRAMS MUST HAVE CAREFULLY DEVELOPED TEACHER TRAINING PLANS, (2) THE PROGRAMS MUST FIELD TEST THE VARIOUS INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS TO BE USED, (3) THERE IS A NEED TO IDENTIFY THE FUNCTIONALLY ILLITERATE SEGMENT OF THE ADULT POPULATION. FURTHER RESEARCH WAS INDICATED IN THE AREAS OF LEARNING, MOTIVATION, TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES, AND TEACHER TRAINING. (RS)

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A REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT LITERACY MATERIALS AND PROGRAMS

Cooperative Research Project No. G-029

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PREFACE

This part of the Report is presented for the express purpose of giving as clear and accurate a picture as possible of thirty-five separate Adult Literacy Programs observed by a four-member team. The observations reported are of programs visited in California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Washington. The programs visited were selected arbitrarily on the basis of apparent size, types of instruction and materials, clientele, administrative structure, and geographic location.

The observation team was made up of one of the project co-directors and three consultants. The background training and experience of these four people were quite varied but, usually, two members were from the field of adult education and two were from the area of reading and linguistics. Prior to making the site visits, no special instructions were given to the team members, nor were they asked to confine their observations to a specific, preconceived structure or check list other than the stated objectives of the project, which are listed in Appendix A.

Because of the selection criteria, the lack of a formal structure in gathering data, and the nature of the data so collected, the reader must be forewarned that the description and discussions of programs, materials used, administrative structures, clientele, and other aspects covered in this Report are claimed to be representative only of the population of adult literacy programs found in the larger metropolitan areas throughout the United States. It is hoped that the information in this Report will indicate the considerable activity that is underway in the area of adult basic education. There are many problems involved in the operation of the programs and, perhaps most important of all, the phenomenon of adult illiteracy is not going to be solved overnight. It must be borne in mind that learning to read and write involves cognitive activities and skills which are slow to develop and about which only limited reliable knowledge is now available.

The data and information forming the basis for the content of this Report are for the most part subjective. Interviews with administrators, teachers of illiterates and, finally, illiterates themselves created general impressions, raised perplexing questions, and suggested a proliferation of contradictory opinions and assumptions about most of the factors entering into the operation of programs in this area of teaching and learning. Examination of materials used, observations of teacher and student behaviors, and interactions in widely varying kinds of classrooms and facilities provided experiences and insights that had not been anticipated. However, these activities were helpful in verifying impressions and in clarifying some of the questions arising from conversations.

In making the first thirteen site visits, no interviews with teachers, students or administrators were recorded. After preparing an interim report covering those sites visited and making a complete evaluation of the visits, the team decided to use recording equipment on all future site visits in order to maintain a more accurate record for reporting. No recordings were made, however, of the interviews with the students or prospective students.

Analyses of observations, impressions, and perceptions and then the synthesizing of them led to consideration of basic fundamentals underlying the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic to the populations involved. The observers, on the basis of their training, past experience, observations, and discussions, identify factors that underlie several identified problems in the teaching-learning process as it applies to the development of basic skills in the functional and totally illiterate. They also suggest implications relevant to the concepts underlying adult literacy programs.

In preparing this Report, each member of the team was assigned a section or sections for which he was responsible. After each section was completed, it was reviewed and edited by each of the three other members for organization, structure, and accuracy. In this manner, it was possible to have each section represent the combined, unanimous thinking of the total team.

PART I

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CHAPTER I

OBJECTIVES FOR ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

Drawing the necessary inferences for the formulation of assessments of the various literacy programs observed proved more difficult than was at first expected. It is obvious, of course, that observers with backgrounds in education and psychology would begin to make comparisons, consciously or unconsciously, almost as soon as they stepped into a classroom, with or without a list of written objectives. They compare and relate what they see with what they have seen; they hesitate, however, to draw inferences until they feel they have sufficient information. Sometimes it is forthcoming, sometimes not.

The members of the team were acutely aware of the dangers inherent in "jumping to conclusions." They were cognizant of the pitfalls in comparing and relating adult literacy programs because they had little experience from which to draw. They looked forward to receiving lists of written objectives, particularly those which indicated the specific behaviors to be achieved.

Such lists are usually available in outline form. They constitute a breakdown of the ultimate objectives into manageable bits. In well-stated objectives, the varying types of instructional techniques which may be used are listed or suggested, i.e., the audio-visual aids which may help in developing certain concepts, the specific textbooks and reference books which pertain to the daily lessons, the ideas for motivating students, sometimes suggestions for arranging a classroom for promoting interaction, and the educational objectives which are forthcoming from the content area itself. Well-written objectives indicate not only what is to be covered but also suggest how the content can be treated most effectively.

Another characteristic of well-stated educational objectives is not quite so obvious, perhaps because the phenomenon underlying this characteristic is never absent from the educative process. The phenomenon is that of individual differences. It is a troublesome one to consider, especially as children slowly become adolescents. As they grow individually, their differences increase. But if education is to be effective and dynamic for as many students as possible, then the objectives must be flexible enough to contain the increasing variation. Perhaps this is where education today faces its greatest challenge--once objectives, even though poorly written, are stated, they seem to harden. It would seem that they have a habit of petrifying, resisting or resenting any change.

The rigidity of stated objectives for adult literacy programs is not a problem now, very few of the thirty five programs visited had any written objectives. Two programs did use written objectives, to guide the classroom teachers and to aid the individuals designing special classroom materials. For example, objectives in connection with the use of the yellow pages of the telephone book had been well-thought out and clearly stated before the special programed material was prepared. One state department had prepared a lengthy list of objectives, and while visiting the classrooms, the team members did observe that use had been made of these copies. In another state a list of written objectives was offered upon request, but it proved disappointing upon examination. The statements in it were highly abstract with no suggestion as to ways such abstractions might be put to use. In several locations, members of the team received documents that could most accurately be categorized either as course outlines or as "soft" promotional materials.

The absence of written objectives does not mean that literacy programs do not have any of the objectives ordinarily found in other educational programs. There are many reasons to account for their not having been written. Two of these could be the relative newness of the programs, and the special emphasis being placed now upon literacy skills--emphasis which is causing rapid expansion of existing facilities and a mushrooming of new programs. Other factors that could account for the absence of written objectives are teacher-load and teacher-time. Still another possible block to the formulation of written objectives may be found in the nature of adult illiterates; they not only differ from the literate adult, but they are different each from the other as well--a matter which has already been mentioned as making a statement of meaningful objectives more difficult.

So what did the team use in formulating its assessments? As time passed, each member of the team realized that subjective assessments of various aspects of the observed programs were being made in many different ways. Comparisons were being made between and among the different programs, on the basis of past experience as teachers, administrators, psychologists, reading specialists, and also as human beings.

Observations in the classrooms, talks with students and teachers, visits with administrators, and examination of materials helped each team member infer what objectives the teachers and/or students seemed to be striving. The observations and the direct talks with students and their teachers were of particular help. Through these and through an intuitive sense, it soon became possible for the team members to identify quickly, in a general way, a "successful" teacher or a "successful" program. In attempting to formulate specifics, however, careful reviews and analyses of the observations and conversations were required. Hopefully, the details of observations which follow will be meaningful; the aspects of conversations reported, pertinent; and the statements of objectives which appear, valid. They appear here because they seem to be the factors to account, at least in part, for "success" or "failure" of a program.

THE ILLITERATE ADULT AND HIS OBJECTIVES

Some current research now underway seems to support to some degree the old syaing, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks." (Experiences of some of the observation team members with their problems in teaching graduate students also seems to support the saying.) Knowing the way concepts are formulated as well as the tenacity with which they are held after having been formulated seems to suggest that any true learning process, i.e., a process that involves a restructuring of previously held concepts, can and does present difficulties to any adult. The nature of these difficulties with respect to the adult illiterate is, of course, unknown, but it would seem relatively safe to say that they might tend to mystify and frustrate him to a greater degree than they would adult literates. This is particularly true when he encounters new experiences which he classifies as painful since he is unable to recognize them and classify them as helpful.

In spite of these difficulties, adults can and do restructure previously held concepts. Adults can learn, and adult illiterates can also learn. But the degree of learning depends heavily upon their motivation, as well as upon their recognition and acceptance of the fact that learning experiences are not always fun. It seems then that adult illiterates (and probably adult literates) should in some manner gain a deeper understanding of the learning process. Such understanding might help in a battle which discourages and disheartens so many. It might also serve to remind teachers of the special nature of their mature adult nonreader.

Just how is the illiterate adult "different"? In comparing the average literate adult who has been subjected to twelve years of education with the average illiterate adult and in considering their respective out-of-school experiences during the same period, there appears at first to be very little difference between the emotional developments of each. However, in their respective cognitive abilities, a difference is naturally expected, a gap in an otherwise normal development of verbal skills. This gap is identifiable by the illiterate's inability to cope with written materials. Recognition of this inability by others and by the illiterates themselves appears to generate further problems that undoubtedly involve self-concept and ultimately, in many cases, deep emotions.

It is now assumed that adults can read and write, and if they cannot. there must be something "wrong" with them. This assumption is made not only by those who perform the basic literacy skills, but also, for the most part, by those who cannot perform the skills. The last statement may seem odd, but, interestingly enough, the team did observe that such an assumption is eventually forced upon the illiterates. The attitude of those who can perform the skills is perhaps understandable, and their attitude is important since it may account, at least in part, for the illiterates' perceiving the inability as a stigma.

An example may serve to clarify the last paragraph, and at the same time, permit the reader to understand how the illiterate adopts the assumption that something is wrong with him because of his inability--a functional illiterate, reading at the third-grade level, is seeking a job. From previous experiences he has built up such a sensitivity with respect to his inability that he refuses to seek aid. He consults the local want ads and, by using his rather limited ability, identifies a job he feels he can fill. He then approaches the personnel agent of the factory with the ad in hand. "I'm here to apply for this job," he says, and he passes the ad to the agent. "You'll have to fill out the regular application form we require of all prospective employees. But, first, let me ask you--how many years of experience have you had as a welder?" A look of bewilderment passes over the applicants' face, and he asks, "Welder?" Somewhat perplexed, the personnel agent glances up and queries, "Say, what's the matter with you? Can't you even read?"

The anecdote does perhaps suggest how the illiterate builds up what appears to be genuine, deep sensitivity with respect to his inadequacy. Perhaps he could have solved this problem by taking the form with him and by having someone else fill it out for him because of his "awful handwriting." But what about the last question: "Can't you even read?" It constituted another experience for the illiterate to add to the others he has had with respect to this deficiency. And it is highly probable that most past experiences, like the present one, have been embarrassing, if not extremely painful.

It becomes apparent that awareness of the gap in literacy skills and certain factors of an emotional nature are probably extremely closely related in those who are illiterate. This relationship should be explored carefully in order to determine what effects it may have upon the development of effective programs in adult literacy. The illiterates have experienced the common rewards and punishments in connection with those abilities they have developed in the "normal" way, but they have probably experienced only punishments of one kind or another with respect to their inability to read or write.

Why are they willing to risk further unpleasantness? Why do some keep attending classes year after year when it should be obvious to them, as it is to others, that they just do not have the innate ability? Questions of this nature arose in the minds of the team members time after time, and the answers did not reveal themselves in such cases. Some answers are, of course, relatively simple--a man needs a better job; a woman's husband died and now she has to find work to support her family. Such answers are frequent; almost always there is an immediate, sometimes urgent, purpose on the part of the student. The illiterate adult, therefore, has a much more positive objective than does the elementary or secondary student. He wants to put his sought-after skill to work, the sooner/the better. He knows why he wants to learn to read and write, and he feels the "why" deeply. It only seems reasonable for him to expect to participate in setting the objectives for a given class; such participation was noted by the observers in many of the successful programs.

The number of individual differences indicates that there was great variability among the students' objectives, or the reasons "why they were there." A few examples follow:

This man had an opportunity for a promotion, but in order to get it he had to learn to read and write;

A grandmother wanted to learn to read and write so that she could help her grandchildren with their homework;

Another woman wanted to become a beautician, but, to do so, she was required to have an eighth-grade certificate;

A prisoner was bored and wanted something to do to pass the time;

And, finally, in one state which has no compulsory education law, a great variety of individuals who had recognized the value of an education and had further realized that the skills of reading and writing were essential in obtaining that education.

The more successful programs appeared to be acknowledging and responding to the students' objectives and to the unalterable fact that the students were responsible adults possessing human dignity even though they were different from others. These programs were instituting and experimenting with dynamic methods and techniques for instruction, for dealing with problems of an emotional nature, and for acquainting students with the roadblocks in the process of learning. In other words, the more successful programs tended to emphasize the full range of student needs--not only what he should acquire in terms of skill, but also a consideration of the best way he, as a mature human being, could attain it.

It should be added that not all of the more successful programs, if any at all, were able to cope adequately with all these complex factors. But most of them were making sincere attempts and were able to meet many of the needs brought about by such factors. In order to develop the techniques to integrate all of the intangibles underlying these factors requires much more research, study, thought, and rather remarkable human talents in the teacher are required.

THE TEACHER AND HIS OBJECTIVES

Before discussing the teachers observed in the adult literacy programs, it may be worthwhile to review very briefly what factors seem to contribute to successful teaching in elementary and secondary schools. The factors outlined below are accepted widely, based upon experience, some research, and the use of common sense. It should be noted that even thought they pertain to the preparation and practices of the teacher, the target population is made up of students.

1. The teacher instructing elementary and high school students must have acquired a mastery and understanding of whatever skill or subject matter he is teaching.

2. He must, during his preparation, have taken courses that familiarize him with the learning process and with the developmental and growth patterns of children and adolescents. (It is hoped, of course, that taking such courses will lead to a better understanding of the relationships between intellectual and emotional factors and how they affect and effect the learning process as the student matures.)

3. He must state or have stated for him a set of educational objectives which will enable him to guide his students toward the attainment of those objectives, objectives which are ordinarily stated in terms of student behavior. These objectives in most instances are aimed at developing the higher-level cognitive abilities, such as application, analysis, and synthesis, rather than at acquiring knowledge of facts through memorization. However, it should be noted here that memorization or rote learning may be necessary in the development of some of the more basic skills.

4. The teacher must be aware of the variabilities existing among his students; he must recognize individual differences. Not only should he be cognizant of them, but he should teach and conduct class discussions with these in mind. For the most part, the concept of individual differences referred to here pertains primarily to differences in ability. But it may, and very frequently does, pertain to differences in the emotional developments of the students. This is true in both the elementary and the secondary school.

5. The teacher must find ways or means of motivating the students. Perhaps this final "must" is the most difficult to accomplish, for it involves so many intangibles. For example, he may have to devise a way to encourage a given student to participate actively so that learning can more readily be accomplished. He must also be aware that motivation may sometimes be a function of the degree to which the teacher permits or encourages a given student or students to identify with him.

Identification is a common occurrence in almost any phase of life, but it occurs in school with great frequency. The ways in which identification is accomplished by students vary considerably, sometimes to the advantage of the teacher with regard to motivation and not infrequently to his disadvantage when the student carries identification to an extreme. The student recognizes or is encouraged to recognize some trait or traits in the teacher, either intellectual or otherwise, that he admires and would perhaps like to develop. The recognition of this desire on his part effects identification, and this, in turn, is quite likely to have positive effects upon the student's motivations.

These elements suggest that good teaching at any level involves much more than merely "knowing one's subject matter." Since the teacher is supposedly guided by objectives, then the objectives must fully recognize and make provisions for these other factors. Often, in the regular classroom of children or adolescents during a brief observation, one may not be aware that a teacher is taking these into consideration. One possible reason for this unawareness may be due to the difference in nature and strength of the elementary or secondary students' objectives.

The importance of the illiterate adults' objectives has already been emphasized, and it was noted that the more successful teachers and programs appeared to be recognizing their importance in the instructional situation. As a matter of fact, it became apparent to some of the observers that methods and techniques encompassing these elements encouraged a very positive learning atmosphere. Perhaps this atmosphere accounted for the observers' ability to recognize instinctively a successful operation. These factors eventually became of primary interest to the observers, for the more successful teachers, along with their objectives related to the teaching of reading and writing, seemed to be guided at the same time by another set. They might be described as being generated by the teacher's recognition and understanding of the significant differences, the subtle problems, attitudes, and fears developed by the adult illiterates (in part, because of his deficiencies) and the teacher's abilities and skills in practicing and applying what he had been taught about teaching, learning, and motivating. This set of hidden objectives was deemed of such importance to the team members that they serve as the basic structure of the section describing methods and techniques used by some of the teachers in meeting objectives. It seems to be clear that the methods and techniques used in teaching adults to read and write are of considerably more importance than some other factors.

The observers encountered difficulty when they attempted to become specific and to state what these hidden objectives were. The list appearing below reports teacher and student behaviors, both in and out of the classroom. It also contains, more or less, the stimuli that resulted in the formulation of the list. The list constitutes a composite based upon all programs observed. Striving toward these objectives appeared to generate successful teaching techniques, although not all of the more successful teachers were cognizant of or guided by all of the following objectives:

1. Devising different ways to help the student change the self-concept he now holds.

2. Building in the student the concept that the acquisition of the ability to read and write is a slow process requiring much practice.

3. Devising ways so that immediate rewards can be experienced by the learner during this process.

4. Developing group interaction so that the problems encountered during the learning process and the situations that may account for the stigma attached to their deficiency can be discussed freely and openly.

5. Finding ways and means to help the illiterate overcome the shame or embarrassment he appears to experience by enrolling in the literacy program and attending the classes.

6. Developing other methods or materials that will tend to widen the illiterate's interests.

There was the expected variability among teachers in regard to strictly educational objectives. Most of the teachers in the classrooms visited by the observation team had been prepared as elementary and secondary teachers in the areas of the basic skills. Those who had not had formal training had apparently received rather thorough training in the particular program in which they were working. This was particularly true in the strong volunteer programs visited by the team. The instruction seemed to indicate that the teachers possessed an adequate grasp and understanding of these skills, that is a grasp and understanding of what is currently known about the skills and the types of instruction which are believed to be most effective in helping students develop them. In some cases, however, the materials used by the teacher seemed to dominate the techniques of instruction employed. In other instances, teaching machines shared equal responsibility for instruction, and in one case, almost total responsibility.

In adult literacy programs it would seem that a teacher plays a role similar to the one ordinarily played by the elementary or secondary school teacher as far as educational objectives are concerned. But because of the previously mentioned significant difference and of the need to recognize and act in accordance with two sets of objectives, he becomes quite a different kind of teacher from the one ordinarily found in either the elementary or secondary school.

He must have those objectives well in mind that pertain strictly to the areas of reading and writing. He must also know or try to discover what methods seem most usable and most effective with adults. The other set of objectives indicates that the teacher develop rapport with the individuals in the class as soon as possible in order to determine, or perhaps to develop, their objectives. Once the students' objectives are determined, such knowledge can serve as a guide for selecting a main course to follow in terms of educational objectives. However, the main course has to be, of necessity, relatively broad in scope because of the variability in the objectives of the students. The knowledge gained by interviews, by group interaction, and by any records available further enables the teacher to plan detours or asides off and through the main course to provide for the variability within student objectives.

The student may be illiterate, but he is an illiterate adult with other well-developed cognitive skills. Recognition of this fact on the part of the teacher, along with others previously suggested, should encourage him to find ways of describing to the student the nature of the main course and the detours, so that the student knows that he actually is moving and going in a direction which is meaningful to him. Developing and understanding the relationships existing between the main course and any deviations from it may tend to convince the adult illiterate that not only is he learning to read and write but also that he is, at the same time, approaching his own personal objective.

Finally, the teacher of adult illiterates is aware of the importance of the variables underlying the hidden objectives and has the ability to find ways of accomplishing these objectives. Most important of all, he possesses the flexibility to change a plan leading toward an educational objective, immediately if necessary, if he senses that one of the factors underlying the other set of objectives is interfering or causing undue anxiety. On the other hand, he is able to use this flexibility to change his plan if he recognizes a moment or a movement that will give him an opportunity to approach one of his hidden objectives.

But how frequently will such teachers be found? How much will the typical teacher or adult illiterates who is experiencing some success deviate from the description outlined above? How effective will the average teacher be? What training and what background will be needed? More observation, more research, and more thinking will perhaps in part provide answers to these questions. The questions, as posed above, do once again emphasize a crucial factor in teaching adult illiterates (and even perhaps the key in any teaching--the teacher.)

How frequently during the visits were such teachers found? Quite often; however, not all of the teachers possessed all of the qualities and characteristics mentioned above. That would be asking too much. However, there were two qualities the best teachers almost invariably displayed and sometimes talked about. One has already been mentioned--flexibility--the ability to bend, not only in mind, but also in body. These teachers were in no sense of the word,"sticks". They moved, they gestured, they laughed--and they also learned. The other quality was motivation, motivation to teach adults. They were dedicated, not just to teaching, but to teaching adult illiterates.

Some teachers remarked that they felt "good" after having taught an evening class made up of illiterates of varying degrees. When further information was sought by the team members as to what they meant by "good" the reply might be something like this: "Well, if you're a teacher, you somehow have the feeling when you've accomplished something, something which you know will help somebody." They were right in making this remark, for many good teachers are familiar with this "feeling." But the observers heard comments of this nature so often that they began to raise questions. Is it because they can "see" learning taking place? Is it because they themselves are receiving immediate rewards for their teaching activities? If they have the feeling of having accomplished "something," then what is this something? To accomplish something implies that an individual had some kind of objective, and then through some activity was approaching the attainment of this objective. One of these teachers also remarked that there was a great difference between teaching reading to illiterates and teaching developmental skills to adult literates. He did not, however, identify what this "great difference" was. Could he have been referring to what has been called the "significant difference" in this Report? Could the teachers who had the "good feeling" becuase they "felt they had accomplished something" have been referring to the attainment not only of unstated educational objectives but also of the "hidden objectives"?

MEETING THE OBJECTIVES

Motivation to teach adults and flexibility have been identified as two of the qualities common to the best teachers observed during the visits to the adult literacy programs. It has also been suggested that these, along with other factors, are crucial to the attainment of both educational and hidden objectives. In order to broaden the reader's understanding of these intangible factors, as well as to indicate their importance to the educative process, accounts of some parts of observations and conversations follow. Even though subtitles suggest a direct discussion of the factors themselves, the major part of the material describes methods and techniques used by the teachers in attaining their objectives.

Motivation and Flexibility

The importance of the role of student motivation in adult literacy programs seems to become even more crucial than at other levels for several reasons.

First, enrollment and attendance are voluntary for the most part. Second, the traits of the students are such that maintaining a high degree of motivation over a period of time becomes a problem, even though the students may exhibit high motivation at first. This observation was prompted by a remark made by one administrator, "We need to develop means of prolonging the motivation of the students."

Generally speaking, it appeared that the degree of motivation was controlled and/or maintained by two basic factors: the flexibility of the teacher in his methods and techniques of instruction and the types of materials and activities selected. Both of these factors have already been identified as basic to meeting objectives.

Within one program the importance of these two factors was quite evident when classes within the program were observed. Schedules concerning the amount of time to be spent on the development of the skills as well as the materials to be used in the classes were set by the central administration. Memoranda were distributed to all principals and all teachers. This modus operandi appeared to be quite rigid to the observers when compared with that of other programs. It was interesting to note, however, that the teachers who dared depart from the schedule and the lists and determined their own teaching schedules and objectives with their own students more in mind appeared to be meeting with more success than were those who stuck rigidly to the rules.

One teacher, for example, remarked that he was supposed to spend a certain amount of time on reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic, but he had taken it upon himself to vary the schedule as needed--not only in terms of time spent in the various areas, but also in respect to the sequence outlined in the memoranda. However, he did say that he managed to consider each of the areas during each class meeting. Another teacher went even farther in "breaking one of the rules." He permitted the illiterates to take materials home with them so they could read to their small children which was for them, as they told him, "a thrilling experience." At the same time, his flexibility was seemingly motivating the students, for their behavior was much less apathetic than that of other students attending classes in the same building.

Too much control, too much rigidity on the part of the administration, may also have its effects on meeting desired objectives simply because it stifles the motivation of the teacher, a factor discussed above. As a matter of fact, in this particular program only one, or possibly two, of the teachers with whom discussions took place mentioned that they "enjoyed" teaching adult illiterates or that they "felt good" after working with them. Several openly admitted that the only reason they were teaching the classes was for the extra compensation.

To one teacher in a successful program, it appeared that the need to exercise flexibility on his part and motivation of the students were very closely related. This inference was drawn after the teacher had described with some fervor what he would consider the ideal classroom. Such a classroom, according to him, would provide for various groupings, for student movement from level to level according to the area under consideration, for individual work with programed materials when appropriate, and for teacher instruction with the entire group. He considered these possibilities essential because it would help him to develop group interaction, aid him to encourage the sutdents to talk over their problems, not only with him, but with each other, etc. In other words, it would enable him, while instructing, to approach the achievement of his hidden objectives.

Motivation and Class Activities

Class activities and some materials used in instruction appeared highly effective as motivators when in the hands of the better teachers. In one program, which seemed to have experienced some success, one of the teachers attempted to use materials that had a local cultural slant. He went on to describe the kinds of materials he had used in the past--materials he had apparently adapted to the reading level of the illiterates with whom he was working. Materials concerning the geography and history of the local area, information about the industries in the area, he found were read with considerably more interest than the available commercially published materials. Would such materials, he wondered, be more likely to foster the development of the skills needed by the illiterates? An activity frequently used in this program consisted of bringing in speakers from the locality. These speakers talked about their specialty or about some trip they had taken, and so forth. After hearing the speaker, the students then wrote letters thanking him for talking to them and sometimes, according to one teacher, some students raised questions concerning some aspect of the talk which had puzzled them. It should be noted here, also, that there may be a real advantage in the activity described since the illiterates are introduced to literates who are willing to talk to them and perhaps write to them "in spite of their deficiency." Such activity might constitute another means of accomplishing some of the hidden objectives.

In other successful programs, the observation team noted that student motivation appeared to be higher when booklets about everyday matters were available, or when local newspaper headlines were used in conjunction with the published materials, some of which might pertain to the content of the headlines. Teachers reported that interest generally increased markedly when application forms were used in connection with writing, when income tax forms were introduced to the class, or when common catalogs from mail order houses were used for instruction purposes.

Motivating the near or total illiterate so that he would remain in the program appeared to be difficult. When this problem was discussed with the successful teachers, they admitted that they had found no ready solution. However, they had identified some activities that appeared to encourage the student and at the same time to show that he could and had learned. One frequent activity used with total illiterates consisted of having them "read" numbers. Teachers relating this technique for instruction said that they, first of all, wanted to demonstrate to the total illiterate that he could, in fact, read, but that his ability was extremely limited. The observation team did not see this particular activity in any of the classrooms visited, but one member did observe one teacher using numbers with perhaps the same idea in mind. He had grouped the non-readers together, and the instruction consisted of helping them to find numbers on pages. He told the students that doing this would help find the pages much more quickly for the purpose of learning to read. The observer noted however, that most of the students could find the pages with little help from the instructor. Whether these activities could be classified as providing for immediate rewards remains open to question, but such a conjecture does not seem unreasonable.

Another teacher remarked about the difficulty of using the traditional method of teaching spelling to illiterates who had not reached a high level of reading ability. Although the teacher did not isolate the problem, it probably stemmed from what has been suggested previously about the adult illiterate and the normal development of other cognitive processes in which language plays a part. He knows the concept represented by a word, but he does not know how to write the word. Because of this, the teacher who attempts to teach the meaning of a word at the same time as he is teaching the spelling of it experiences difficulty. The teacher mentioned above had found an ingenious method of circumventing this difficulty and still motivating the student to learn to write the words he already knew. The whole process, he said, evolved from using the past experience of the student. "Suppose," he said, "that you want to teach them the word "brook." It may be new to some and not to others. I simply have them write: A small stream is a brook. Then I've accomplished two purposes. They've written "small" "stream," words they probably already knew and maybe they've learned a new one."

The occasional use of a movie was mentioned by one of the principals as a good motivational device. Travelogues and other documentary films were used, and then the students would write a report on some aspect of the film which interested them. Whether there was any attempt made to encourage synthesizing any new information picked up from the movie with past information they possessed is not known. But encouraging such activity might lessen the gap in the verbal skills of the illiterate.

In another program referred to frequently before, movies were also used but with an additional purpose in mind. Quite frequently, all classes on all levels were brought together to view a particular film. After viewing it, they would return to their own classrooms to carry on whatever activities the teacher may have planned. The teacher who recounted this practice felt strongly that it was important for the illiterates on the lower levels to have contact with those who had progressed to higher levels. The opportunity to be together encouraged group interaction and also tended to reinforce, for those on the lower levels, the fact that they and others like them did, in fact, have the ability to learn.

Motivation and Physical Environment

To what extent did the physical surroundings seem to exercise control over or to affect techniques and methods of instruction and student motivation? In classrooms in which chairs or desks were arranged in rows, the type of instruction most often observed was that very frequently found in elementary or secondary schools. In classrooms where chairs or desks were movable and were arranged so that groups of students could work together or singly, a slightly different type of instruction seemed to occur. The teacher was able to consider individual differences more easily, differences not only in respect to interests but also in respect to the level of development of basic skills.

In one classroom visited, the teacher was working under considerable limitations as far as physical environment was concerned. The room was located in the basement of an elementary school and was set up with fourth-grade equipment. In spite of poor location and of the lack of fit between adults and fourth-grade chairs, the methods and techniques used by the teacher could be classified as some of the best observed. The students were working in groups around tables. Four individuals who were reading at the fourth-grade level were working primarily on vocabulary exercises. Another group consisting of seven students were preparing a written report on the relationship between the earth and the solar system. The table around which they were working was covered with reference books, encyclopedias, textbooks, and other materials pertaining to their subject. This group had reached the reading level of the sixth or seventh grade. There were three students working individually, two on problems in arithmetic and one on the Power Series of Science Research Associates reading materials. The teacher used varying techniques as he moved from one group to another. But on the basis of the description of the activities going on in this classroom and the apparent enthusiasm and fervor of the students, it is possible to conclude that the motivation of the students was extremely high.

In another classroom, the methods and techniques were greatly affected by the physical environment. The team, after leaving this particular class, marveled that the teacher could employ any type of instruction, short of individual tutoring. The room was enormous, and the class consisted of about twenty individuals. There were accommodations in the room for at least 150 students; it contained six television receivers placed at strategic positions; and it was adequately equipped with large fans, most of which were in operation during the class visitation. The difficulties of attempting to encourage class discuss on or even of trying to disseminate information under such conditions need not be elaborated.

Most of the classrooms visited tended to be arranged in the traditional fashion. When asked if informal classroom arrangements had been tried with the idea of encouraging different techniques of instruction, one principal remarked that such an arrangement had been tried, but that there had been some question with respect to "yield" in terms of learning. Further questioning revealed that the informal arrangement had taken place in a settlement house, not a classroom. It was felt that the classes had slowly changed, and whatever learning was taking place was more social in nature than educational.

There would then seem to be some relationship between the methods and techniques employed in a classroom and the physical environment and facilities. But the teacher and the techniques he uses, as well as his grasp of the activities which are most effective in the development of basic skills, can overcome deficiencies in environment if they are not overwhelming.

Motivation and "Learning about Learning"

That illiterates should become aware of some aspects of the learning process became obvious to the observation team, particularly as its members familiarized themselves with the more successful programs. In general, the personnel involved in these programs seemed to suggest that one of their primary tasks was to convince the students enrolled in the programs that learning to read and to write was a slow process which would probably take time. In conversation, teachers also seemed to give the observers the impression that they attempted to explain the idea that the process of learning involves making mistakes. One teacher observed was engaged in an activity in which he was attempting this kind of learning. He had prepared materials with the educational objective of developing within the students an awareness that different letter combinations in English can represent the same sound. In preparing the materials, he had unknowingly made an error, and the students were quick to note it. He immediately capitalized on this; he showed no embarrassment whatsoever and simply remarked, "Well, that's the way we learn. I'll bet you won't catch me making that mistake again." After the students had completed the exercise, they counted the number of times the same sound was represented by various combinations of letters. There was not only variation among them, but also variation between the students who apparently had recognized all of the combinations and the teacher, who had "taken" the exercise also. When this variation was noted by the students, a wave of laughter filled the room. And the teacher laughed, too. Later, during a conversation with the teacher, he revealed that he had planned the second "error" but not the first and that his purpose was to help his students recognize that "mistakes help you learn."

For the "skeptical" illiterate, that is the one who may not realize the value of developing these skills or the one who may think he is too "stupid" to learn, techniques of instruction that serve the dual purpose of developing skills and some awareness of the learning process appear to become more complex. But in the successful programs the importance of considering these factors when selecting methods and techniques was emphasized over and over again. In an extensive conversation with personnel at one of the centers, which, from their remarks and enthusiasm, appeared to be experiencing success, one counselor remarked that it was difficult to find means of demonstrating to some of the illiterates that education *per se* was worth anything simply because they had managed so long without *very much*. He continued to say that if the skeptic can be convinced it is worth anything, then he must be shown it is crucial for him to learn to read and write. The counselor indicated that he did not attempt to deal with this complex problem but that this was certainly a factor considered by the successful teacher. He did add that knowledge of other problems which the illiterate had was sometimes helpful in suggesting types of instruction or materials which might be effective in serving this dual purpose.

One of the teachers at this center made a remark to the effect that the total illiterate must be prepared to handle the development of these new skills by putting him in the right "mental set" for learning. Such a remark would suggest that this teacher was perhaps aware of the significant difference described previously and was attempting to take it into consideration in his techniques of instruction. That the students should learn something about the learning process as it applies directly to them was also suggested by a remark made by an administrator at this center, "Once they learn they can learn, they tend to go on."

In conversation with students, it was difficult to determine whether remarks made by them came as a result of having been told or of having been taught by an extremely skillful teacher. One would probably be led to select the latter when the subject of the conversations is considered. Previously in this Report, descriptions were made of techniques and methods occurring under what might be called adverse environmental conditions. That description had no mention of the heat and humidity, and this class was the only one which did not stop training during the summer months. When queried about this, the students indicated that they were in school to learn and that they were afraid they would forget if they took "time off." In another center in another state, the students pointed out that they worked steadily with no breaks, i.e., they did not take a two-week vacation at Christmas as other classes did. They did not want a break, according to them, because from prior experience they realized that during the break they "lost" something. They went on to state that they felt they even forgot between Tuesday and Thursday (their regular class meetings) and wished that classes could meet every night. Such information coming voluntarily from the students led the observation team to believe that in the successful classes, the students had become somewhat aware of at least one aspect of the learning process.

One other interesting point that relates to the illiterates' "learning about learning" while also developing the basic skills was mentioned during one of the many conversations which centered about this aspect of teaching the adult illiterate. One of the teachers expressed a concern about whether "we are giving them the right thing." When queried about this, the teacher said that he was in part referring to materials, but only in part. He continued with words to this effect: Suppose the individual does reach the eighth-grade level in all the basic skills and then goes out and gets a job. With all the emphasis now being placed on literacy and the getting of this job, he may have concluded that possessing these skills will help him hold the job. "Well, sure they will," remarked the teacher, "but what if he is not intelligent enough to hold the job in spite of his having the ability to read and write?"

Motivation and Knowing "Why"

In one class observed, the teacher appeared to be highly motivated and seemed genuinely to enjoy what he was doing. The class was heterogeneous; it was composed of approximately the same number of men and women, with a wide age range. It was also an integrated classroom.

In spite of these difficulties, as was noted previously, the teacher was enjoying himself and was delighted when the team of observers entered the room. In this classroom the rapport was excellent, so good that eventually the members of the observation team became "classmates" and students." But, after having some conversations with the students themselves, the observers were puzzled, for the team was led to believe that the teacher was only partially successful. From further sessions, which included a general rehashing of the conversations with students, the team hit upon what might perhaps account for success being only partial.

During the class session a tachistoscope had been used to flash numbers and words very quickly on a screen in the front of a room. At first, the observation team thought that the selection of such a device and the materials used in it for purposes of instruction might be a means on the part of the teacher of furnishing an immediate reward for the identification of a particular word or number. Another possible purpose could have been "to exercise and develop visual perception." Perhaps it was being used for both of these purposes, but, as the activity continued, the whole procedure seemed to develop into a kind of game. When it was over, it was over--and that was that. When one of the students was asked what the purpose of its use was, he admitted that he had no idea, but that the device was used in the same way quite frequently.

The adult illiterate appears to be interested in knowing "why" he is performing a given activity. He would like to know, "What good it will do me." Recalling that he has his own set of objectives, it would seem that he should know. About the only positive comment to be made about this particular activity in this particular classroom was that it did appear to promote group interaction.

Undoubtedly, there were many other classrooms in which deeper understandings could have been fostered, if the purpose of the activity had somehow been worked into the methods and techniques used by the teacher. The preceding illustration was selected because it seemed to be outstanding. This activity was only one of many employed by the teacher. Serious questions can be raised about whether we now know how to teach teachers to combine in their methods and techniques what we know about purpose in learning and what we know about developing skills.

Motivation and Teacher Direction

As indicated previously, teacher training institutions provide courses designed to familiarize prospective and practicing teachers with the nature of the learning process and the variables underlying it. With an understanding and grasp of this complex process, the teacher should then be better able to select materials for a given group of students as well as to determine what methods and techniques of instruction will be most effective in helping the student attain the educational objectives set up for him. Attention has already been called to the fact that in adult literacy programs, both the teacher and the student seem to set the objectives and that in the successful programs the teachers recognize this fact. They also seem to realize that the techniques they use in dealing with students on the elementary and secondary levels might not be appropriate to use with adults, even though the adults are attempting to develop the same skills which the elementary pupils are developing. How then did the methods and techniques observed seem to indicate the degree to which teachers understood the learning process? Did these observations lead the team to believe that real learning was taking place rather than sheer memorization?

The description of the arrangement of chairs or desks in many of the classrooms visited suggests that the observers found many teacher-directed classrooms. The type of instruction observed appears to substantiate this suggestion. In some classes the observers noted a degree of apathy on the part of the students; for the most part, this attitude seemed to exist in classrooms which were definitely directed by the teacher. The types of instruction most frequently observed in such classrooms were traditional in nature--the teacher stood at the front of the room and either told or directed, depending upon what subject matter or area was under consideration. Very few of the students said anything during the classes. It might be added that they seemed "not to care too much" about anything when asked direct questions by members of the observation team after the class sessions had ended.

Variability, as usual, was present in what might be called the teacher-directed classrooms. The types of instruction observed indicated that some teachers would direct for a time and then wander about the classroom working individually with the students as they performed various exercises. For example, in one class which could probably be classified in this category, there was considerable variation in methods and techniques used by the teacher. The class members consisted of individuals varying from no reading ability to roughly the third-grade level. The total illiterates were grouped so that they could receive the special instruction they needed. At the beginning of the class period, however, the teacher was instructing the entire class in writing. Emphasis was being placed on the spacing of letters and on "bringing the letter to the line." Students were then asked to practice the writing of the letter in workbooks designed for primary level pupils. When the time came to change to reading, however, the type of instruction changed. Some discussion with respect to newspaper headlines took place, and then the students began to read individually. As they read silently, the teacher walked around the room, asking each to read several sentences aloud to him. He very quietly questioned them in such a way when they erred that he was not telling but rather encouraging them to work out the word either by using phonetic or structural cues.

It may appear that the observation team tends to be critical of the teacher-directed classroom. Such is not the case, since the importance of the teacher, particularly when he is dealing with adult illiterates, has already been emphasized. The question centers about the degree and type of teacher direction that may be appropriate for the adult illiterate in general, and more particularly for adult illiterates at varying levels of development and native ability. It is suggested here that for total illiterates a great deal of teacher direction is necessary since the kind of learning which may be involved here is of the lowest level, i.e., rote memorization.

One example can be given to illustrate that some of the higher cognitive processes are considered by some teachers and the related methods and techniques used. However, it should be noted that the class members were at about the seventh-grade level; they were a relatively homogeneous group; and they had been working with the same teacher for some time. When the observers entered the classroom, they noted some arithmetic problems on the chalkboard. The teacher indicated to them that the students had been working on division that morning and asked if they would like to have one or two of the students demonstrate their ability. With some hesitancy (because the observers felt that they had "descended en masse"), they replied in the affirmative, adding "if the students want to." The students did want to; with no hesitation, one of them walked to the chalkboard and divided a three-digit number by a two-digit number.

Since the atmosphere in the classroom seemed relaxed, the observation team quickly realized that it was most welcome. One of the observers asked the teacher if it would be permissible for him to address a question to the student at the board. The teacher nodded her head and smiled at the student. The observer said: "You've just divided a large number by a smaller number, and you have the answer. Now, I'm wondering if you can tell me what the answer means?" The student displayed a rather puzzled expression and glanced over at the teacher who said softly, "Go ahead. You know what the answer means." The observer then remarked: "Suppose you divided four by two. What would the answer be?" The student quickly gave the correct response. The observer then asked, "Well, what does that answer represent?" "Oh, I see what you mean!" exclaimed the student. Then she went on to indicate that the answer showed how many of the smaller numbers it took to make the larger number.

To the observers this bit of exchange appeared to indicate that whatever methods and techniques the teacher had been using in the past had been based upon a rather thorough knowledge of the subject matter as well as an understanding of some of the higher cognitive processes. Conversations with some of the students also seemed to confirm this inference, but the reader must keep in mind the special make-up of this class and its level of development.

What type of instruction were students working totally with programed materials receiving? The different kinds of programing means that the types of instruction vary. Basically and very briefly, there are two main approaches. One of these leads the student through a progression of logically framed questions. Each question is answered immediately after having been posed. If the student produces the correct response, then he is rewarded by being permitted to proceed. The other technique is more complicated, involving the use of what is known as the branching technique. The student is asked a question which may have several alternatives from which he selects one. After making his selection, he is directed to another page in order to discover whether his selection was correct. If he was successful, he is then asked another question, and so forth. If, however, he was unsuccessful, he is sometimes reprimanded for not having read the question carefully and told to try again. Sometimes he is provided with further information that may aid him in selecting the correct response, and at other times he may receive information to correct the misconception which may have accounted for his wrong selection. There are, of course, many other kinds of programed materials that have been and are being developed. Claims, with respect to the type of instruction provided by the material, are made by the creators of such programs; at this point it is difficult to say very much about the types of instruction such materials provide.

Programed materials certainly do have a place in the classroom, but that place has yet to be determined. For the total illiterate, it should be noted that during the first six or seven hours of instruction the student does work with a tutor. In the classrooms visited where programed materials were being used exclusively, the tutors had had little, if any, preparation as teachers. As a matter of fact, one of the directors of the adult education centers, when queried about their training, remarked that he felt that there was no need for professional teachers and that he would rather not have them because, "They interject themselves too often and unnecessarily into the programed learning situation."

However, one of the observers was curious. He asked a student, a young man reading at about the seventh-grade level, if he would mind reading a sentence aloud. The student asked, "Which sentence?" "It doesn't matter," replied the observer. The student selected a sentence and read it. The observer thanked him very much and then excused himself. In reading the sentence, the student had been able to cope with the longer words, but he misread such words as to, of, etc. It may seem that this observation is trivial, but it is far from being so. Such words are there to help the individual comprehend relationships existing between and among events related to writing, events which make up the content of the materials being read. Misreading these words can easily lead to lack of comprehension. However, it may be that the programed materials contain some method of dealing with such problems. If so, then the observation is unnecessary.

Identification

The reader will note that the heading of this section is different from those preceding. Attempting to separate, identification from flexibility, in order to discuss the relationship of each to methods and techniques of instruction is impossible because these factors and others like them are so deeply entangled with each other. However, descriptions which appear to illustrate certain of these concepts as well as the deep relationships existing between and among them have been selected and presented.

Identification is important in all phases of education since, when accomplished, it appears to foster student motivation. On the basis of the information already presented, it would seem that this is a particularly important factor in adult literacy programs. It appears to be so important that it almost seems to be included in the popular concept of individual differences. For the most part, the successful teachers seemed to use individual differences and individual objectives as a means of encouraging the student to identify more quickly. They do this in such a way that learning the skills becomes easier, and also learning about learning itself is accomplished.

Identification seems to take place in several ways. Not only does the student identify with the teacher and the teacher encourage the student to make such identification, but also the students appear to identify with each other. They come to realize that "We are in the same boat." Once again the good teacher capitalizes on this type of identification. This factor may perhaps account for what proved to be one of the most interesting evenings of conversation, discussion, and observation experienced by team members.

As the team members were walking by the open windows of a particular classroom, they noted an uproar of laughter coming from the group of students. Later, it became known that this was a common occurrence in this teacher's classroom, and he was pinpointed as probably being the best teacher in the literacy program. This particular evening constituted the first meeting of a new summer session and the teacher was testing each of the members of his class (about thirty) with an informal reading inventory. But in spite of this, he had found the time to develop rapport so that, from what the team could gather, the identification process had already begun. The attitude of those not being tested was also noteworthy. Even though there had been laughter resulting from something the teacher had said, and, even though they were apparently becoming acquainted, when the teacher was busy with one student at his desk, the other students remained very quiet. Only when he was finished with one student and making some quick written comments before interviewing the next would one hear a slight murmur. When certain members of the observation team were talking with him, the students began to talk among themselves. Now, it may be possible that he had leveled some dire threat or made some urgent plea to effect silence while he was testing, but such a conjecture does not seem to fit. The students who were not being tested did not appear particularly submissive or frightened. On the other hand, they appeared to be displaying respect for a teacher who, during a very short period, had been able to conduct himself in such a manner as to earn it.

The teacher remarked that, in addition to determining the grade level for the purposes of instruction and independent reading, he also picked up valuable information concerning the students' objectives as well as insights into other problems which he suspected might be of value later in planning what he would do. He also remarked that often when a student complained he could not do some particular aspect of the work, he would reply, "Sure you can. If I can do it, you can do it, too." Such a reply is often labeled as a motivational device, which may be quite right. But does it not also encourage identification?

After leaving this classroom with some reluctance, the observers were reminded of a description given by one administrator at a different center, a description of some of the characteristics of a "good teacher." This administrator indicated that the age of the teacher was not as important as the degree of his maturity and his ability to understand the problems faced by illiterates. He should also realize that his students are adults and should be treated as such. He should not look down on or talk down to them in any way. Above all, the administrator went on, the teacher should not display any "phoniness." He should also know how and when to listen. The teacher the observers talked to that evening seemed to "fit" this description.

Two other observations concerning this class should be mentioned. First, there were far more men in this class than in others the team had visited. The second is a scene which took place outside the door of this particular teacher's classroom. Approximately eight individuals were standing in a group, and from their general appearance, they were upset. One of the observers asked the principal what the problem appeared to be. He smiled and went on to explain that, even though these students had reached a grade level which would permit them to go into an advanced class, they refused to do so because they "liked" the way this teacher "did things." The principal reminded them that this class was for beginning readers, that they were no longer beginning readers, and that they should enter another class for their own good. Just what ever happened is not known, for the principal was still discussing with the students when the observers left the building.

Providing for individual differences can perhaps foster the identification process. Once again, the degree to which individual differences are recognized and the activity which follows such recognition must be mentioned. In one program, it was noted that some of the teachers, when instructing in front of the class, treated the adults pretty much as though they were children. However, when they began going from individual to individual, their demeanor began to change. When it changed, a change appeared to occur in the students. Some teachers provided for individual differences for the more advanced readers by tracking down materials they thought to be more appropriate for adults. The students appreciated this activity, and the atmosphere in these classrooms seemed somewhat better than in those in which teachers just "taught." But the atmsophere in any of the classrooms observed in this particular program could not begin to compare with that in some of the others in other programs.

In one classroom in quite a different type of program, the teacher that evening had received a gift from his students--a watch. The motive behind the giving of this particular gift had nothing to do with being held overtime for instruction. The students in this class complained that classes were not held more frequently. The students apparently appreciated what the teacher was doing for them, and since he did not have a watch, they decided to give him one. This classroom, incidentally, was an integrated one with a white teacher, a point which will be discussed later, a point which would appear to be significant with respect to identification.

In another class already described, the one in which the adults did not fit the fourth-grade chairs, the phenomenon of identification was most apparent. The teacher picked up the students not only for classes, but also for church if they did not have their own transportation. Some students were older and some younger than the teacher, but it seemed that she had almost become a mother image to them. Conversations with students and the teacher after the class revealed that they quite frequently had picnics together and participated as a group in other social activities. It should be noted here that the teacher in this case was a Negro as were all of the students.

Finally, a word about identification, or rather the lack of it, in programs which depended heavily upon programed materials. In spite of the number of hours spent at the beginning of the course for the total illiterate, it would seem questionable that very much identification can take place. It has already been memtioned that students identify with one another and that this tends to reinforce the notion that some progress has been made. Does the student undergoing programed learning realize that he is not alone with respect to his deficiency? What is the effect of knowledge of group progress upon individual progress? If there is such an effect, then it would seem difficult to attain using programed materials exclusively even though individual progress charts are usually kept. Lastly, the importance of identifying with the teacher has been emphasized. How is such a process possible in a programed learning situation?

Allusion has already been made to the fact that some of the classrooms were integrated and others were segregated. What accounts for this fact will not be discussed here but a question will be raised about a possible barrier to the identification process which integration could conceivably produce. Classes consisting of white students taught by a white teacher were frequently found as were classes consisting of Negro students taught by a Negro teacher. Integrated classes taught by a white teacher were rather commonly noted, whereas integrated classes taught by a Negro teacher were seen infrequently. The observers did not see any other combinations. How does difference in race affect the readiness and willingness to identify in any of the three ways mentioned? From their very limited observations and because of the difficulty of determining the degree to which identification has taken place, the observers do not feel in a position to make any guess as to what the answer might be. Once again, it would seem that the degree of identification in integrated classrooms would still somehow be controlled by the teacher and his activities. However, the psychological barriers generated by difference in race could easily interfere deeply with the identification process.

CONCLUSIONS

Any attempt at carrying on any educative process is probably futile unless the process is designed so that its completion will have brought about the attainment of objectives set up before the process began. The objectives themselves should be stated so that they will permit and encourage the dynamic teaching that appears to be most effective in arriving at the objectives. There is no reason to believe at present that adult literacy programs should be any different in this respect from other educational endeavors. Meeting objectives can be approached in many ways. Right now the key factor in achieving some degree of success in teaching people to read and write seems to be the teacher, not the teacher who lectures or talks or directs, but rather a thoroughly human being who has talent in developing methods and techniques that are effective in motivating students toward their objectives and in permitting the teacher to realize his objectives.

On the basis of what the observers saw and heard, it appears that the first major task confronting responsible individuals in education is to make careful provision for sound training programs for teachers of illiterate adults. Development of new and different aids and materials may be of some help, but without creative and dynamic teachers to use them, it is feared that much energy and money will be spent in vain.

CHAPTER II

PERSONS INVOLVED IN ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

THE STUDENT

Who are the clientele being served by the adult literacy programs observed in the thirty-five communities visited? True, they can be classified categorically as "illiterates of varying degrees" when the term illiterate is defined as: "A person lacking the basic skills, concepts and comprehension in the areas of reading, writing, and arithmetic." The observation team believes this is the definition usually applied to such persons. However, they also realize that there is a great deal more that the teacher of such persons should know if he is to be an effective teacher.

In addition to knowing who these persons are, the teacher must also know and understand what these persons are like and why they are that way. Based on these beliefs, this section of Chapter II will be reported in three basic segments--first, a rather general description of the illiterates' demographic characteristics; second, a description of their motivations, fears, and beliefs; and, third, a brief statement drawn from interviews that will attempt to shed some light on why these persons are what they are.

Students in the programs observed generally ranged in age from eighteen through seventy years, the average age about the middle thirties. In a majority of the programs visited, policies stipulated that in order to enroll in a literacy class a person must be at least eighteen years of age and not enrolled in a regular day school program as a full-time student.

No attempt was made by the team to identify the majority of participants according to sex due to the great diversity among the programs observed. It should be pointed out however, that the majority of participants in the evening classes and in the Manpower Development and Training Act day classes were male, while the participants in most of the other day programs were predominantly female.

Within the programs visited in the South, the East, and the Midwest it appeared to the team that the majority of the participants were Negro. On the other hand, in the West and the Southwest it seemed that the majority of the enrollees were white, although many of them were of a foreign extraction. In all areas visited the team noted integrated classes, some with white teachers and others with Negro teachers.

A great majority of the students enrolled in the adult literacy classes were married, and almost all had children. Many of the older students reported that they had grandchildren and great-grandchildren.

The number of years of formal education reported by the students enrolled in the programs ranged from zero through twelfth grade. However, for students reporting from six to twelve years of formal schooling, this education generally represented poor attendance and certainly low achievement. Most of the people who attained this relatively high grade level had moved from one school system to another without actually having mastered those competencies that would ordinarily be associated with such grade levels.

Most of these students when tested with standardized reading tests scored from a zero to a fourth-grade level of reading ability. Very few who had been out of school over two years scored within two grade levels of their reported highest level of formal schooling. Of the students who had been exposed to less than six years of formal schooling, the majority, after testing and counseling, were rated from zero to third-grade reading level.

A majority of the adult literacy students observed reported that they were unemployed. In some areas very few of the class members were not working at the time of observation. In most instances where the students were on the welfare rolls, the local department of public welfare provided nursery or baby sitting services, and, if fees were charged, these were paid by that department.

In view of the great diversity of the programs and students observed the team did not attempt to identify a "model student," one who would be typical of all programs and areas visited. However, at the time these visits were made, less than 1 per cent of the total and functional illiterates were being reached in the areas visited. The team believes that it was highly probable that an even lower percentage of the total illiterate population was being reached by such programs across the United States.

Motivation Affecting Students

The answer to the question, "Why do these adults attend literacy classes?" is not as simple as might be imagined. Certainly, they attend to develop needed skills in reading, writing, and arithmetic, but why do they feel a need to master these skills? There is no question in the minds of the team members that they have "gotten along" reasonably well without such skills. After visiting with many of these students, the observers were able to identify two sets of motivational forces underlying participation: vocational and self-improvement. The observers were aware of the existence of these two general syndromes prior to the site visits. In fact, they had been led to believe that the majority of the people found in the classes would be there because of the vocational motivation--this was not the case.

Among the students observed who listed a vocationally oriented motivation, the observers found that they fell into two classifications: job seekers and job improvers. Of those persons who fell into the job-seeking category, it was found that they could be further subdivided into one group which had never been employed and a second group which had been employed but were currently out of work and were interested in developing a new vocational skill.

Those persons classified as "job seekers, never employed" were primarily women who felt that it was necessary for them to go to work. Reasons listed by these women for going to work were: 1) change of marital status through death of the husband, divorce, or separation from their husbands; 2) husband out of work; 3) need to supplement husband's income due to increased expenses; and 4) desire to "get off the welfare rolls."

Of the individuals who were identified as "job seekers, unemployed," the majority were males; however, in the highly industrialized areas many women fell into this category. As might have been expected, most of these unemployed persons were those who had been employed as unskilled or semi-skilled workers and had been displaced by automation. In some instances, the observers were told that the former employers had recommended that these persons, some of whom were long-time employees, attend the local adult literacy classes in order that they might be retrained for skilled jobs in which there would be openings in the community.

Persons attending the literacy classes because of a desire to retain or improve their present employment status were predominantly male. These people, for the most part, reported that they were attending the literacy classes to develop or increase their reading, writing, and arithmetic skills to such a level that they would be eligible to enter specific vocational training programs. Some of them indicated that their employers had informed them that it would be necessary to master the literacy skills in order for them to either retain their present job or to be in line for a promotion to a job at the foreman or supervisory level.

Some of the specific reasons for the job improvement-motivated students being enrolled in literacy classes showed rather emphatically that a great many of them are quite intelligent. One man had been employed as a rural mail carrier for over fifteen years even though he could neither read or write. He simply had his son ride with him and read the names and addresses for him. Now that the son was entering the military service, this person found it necessary to learn to read in order to hold his job.[2]

Another individual had been employed as a shipping clerk for a number of years, and only when his employer wanted to promote him to supervisor of the shipping department did it become known that he could only write his name and had no reading ability. This man had memorized the labels on the packaged material, and when the typed orders came to him, he could identify the material needed, assemble the order, and attach the order to the package. From there it went to another person who placed the shipping labels on the packages.

Many other similar instances were cited, all emphasizing the fact that many of the illiterate population do hold reasonably responsible positions by virtue of their native intelligence and ability. As would be expected, these persons are among those who seemingly make the most rapid progress in the adult literacy programs.

Analysis of the responses from persons whom the observers identified as being "self-improvement" motivated showed that the responses could generally be divided into seven categories. These categories are 1) parent image, 2) helping children, 3) social status, 4) "operation bootstrap," 5) group interaction, 6) religion, and 7) social outlet. Some of these overlap motivational forces classified as vocational, but the context in whcih they were given leads to the belief that the students were thinking of these forces primarily in terms of self improvement and vocational motivation was secondary in their minds. A discussion of the seven categories follows:

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[2] When the observers asked how this person had gotten this rural mail carrier job, they were informed that he had been given the Civil Service Examination orally as the result of a "political debt."

1. Most often, those persons motivated by the parent image force quite frankly admitted to the observers or their teacher that the reason they were in the literacy class was because they felt that if their children found that they could not read or write, it would destroy or decrease the children's desire to finish school. One person said that the reason he was in class was because one of his children was threatening to drop out of school because, "You can't read or write and you get along all right, so why should I finish high school?" This person believed that if he could get an eighth-grade equivalent certificate, his youngster's argument would be ineffective. Surprisingly enough, some people in this category were grandparents who were quite concerned about their grandchildren and the effect that their illiteracy might have on them.

2. Observers identified two different groups of persons motivated by the desire to be able to help their children. One group was interested only in being able to help their children and, in some cases, grandchildren with their schoolwork. A second group said that they were in the literacy class because they believed that if it were known that they could not read or write, their children's peer group would be limited.

3. One of the more common motivational forces among those identified as self-improvement was that of improving or maintaining one's social status by becoming proficient in literacy skills. This reason might be expected most often from Negro students, but the observers noted that it was listed by white students as frequently as by Negroes. Indeed it would appear that some of the low income whites are becoming cognizant of the fact that, with the passage of civil rights legislation and the drive for improvement exhibited by the Negro, they must improve themselves in order just to maintain their present social status.

4. Closely related to the preceding motivational forces, yet different enough that the observers felt they should be identified separately, were the forces called "operation bootstrap" and "group interaction." The operation bootstrap motivation was one listed exclusively by the Negro students. Persons placed in this category were those who made such statements as, "It looks like my people are beginning to get some breaks. If we are going to make anything of the breaks, it's up to us to get as much education as we can," or "If our people are ever going to amount to anything, it's up to me and people like me who ain't got no learnin' to get that learnin' just as fast as we can."

5. The students classified as being group interaction motivated were those who seemed to be most concerned with their increasing inability to "talk to" or "visit with" their friends and neighbors and with people in general. One lady stated, "I feel very uncomfortable and nervous when I try to talk to my friends. I can hardly bring myself to talk to people I don't know very well because I just know that they will know that I never went to school as soon as I open my mouth."

6. Some of the students interviewed by the observers stated quite bluntly that the only reason they were enrolled in the literacy classes was to learn to read so that they could read the Bible. Most of the persons with religious motivations were older, and the majority were found in the Southern states visited.

7. The last self-improvement motivational force identified was the one designated as social outlet. This type of motivation was found most commonly among those persons who were either receiving welfare payments or whose family incomes were extremely low. In one instance an individual made the statement, "I come to this class because it is the only chance I have to get away from the kids and the old man."

Some of the motivational forces identified in this section are not those which educators feel students should have for the most effective learning. However, regardless of the type of motivation that compels the adult illiterate to enroll in the literacy classes, the observers believe that the teacher must recognize the motivation for what it is, and, if it is weak, the teacher must use that force as a means of developing other, more powerful motivating forces in the student.

Barriers Faced by Clientele

In most instances, the observers noted that, in spite of a vigorous promotional campaign, good public relations, and the fact that classes in existence had a reasonably large enrollment, the adult literacy programs were reaching only a very small portion of the total and functional illiterates in the area. It appeared to the observers that many administrators and teachers were either unaware of the many barriers facing the adult illiterate or if they were aware of their existence, these people were not acknowledging such existence. The barriers identified by the observers were classified as: 1) economic, 2) family, 3) social, and 4) psychological.

1. The barrier caused by economic pressures was noted in all programs observed, regardless of whether or not fees were charged. It must be granted that, where fees were charged for adult literacy classes, they were quite modest--in most instances the fees were approximately $2.00 per year. An additional expense in most programs was transportation. In some, the students incurred some expense for pencils, paper, and similar materials. Another instance of this barrier was pointed out by some of the students when they noted, "At first I wouldn't come to this class because I didn't have any decent clothes to wear." For a person with a very low family income where the primary needs are physiological, this could be a difficult barrier to overcome. Although this particular barrier was not noted as often as were some of the others, there is a strong possibility that it is preventing many from entering this type of class.

2. A barrier to attendance of adult literacy classes that is closely related to economic pressures is the one listed as family pressure. When asked, "What was the most difficult thing you had to face when you decided to enroll in this class?" the observers heard such responses as "I didn't

have enough money for a baby sitter and had no one to leave the children with." Other reasons heard were "an invalid member in the family and no one to leave him with"; "After I take care of the family all day, I didn't feel like coming"; or "After working all day, I was too tired."

3. Of the four types of barriers listed, the social and psychological were those listed most often. Of the social pressures affecting the enrollment decisions, the one listed most often was "reluctance to admit to friends and neighbors the inability to read and write," even though many of these persons were in the same situation. Another attitude held by many was the belief that school was only for children and that older people can not learn in school. Typical of observations pertaining to these barriers was a statement made by one student in North Carolina: "The toughest part about startin' in this class was listenin' to my friends telling me, "You're too old to learn anything in books, and besides school is for kids." Now that I'm in school, they don't say anything; they just look at me and grin."

Another belief harbored by some potential enrollees if they had failed, dropped out, or if they had never been enrolled in school, was that they were too "dumb" or too "stupid" to learn anything. Along this line the observers heard such statements as, "I almost didn't come because I was afraid that I was too dumb to learn anything," or "If it hadn't been for _______, I would never have started in this class because all my people and my friends told me I was just too stupid to learn anything in school. Now I know better, but I still can't tell them a thing." As pointed out earlier in this report, the great majority of the people in adult literacy classes certainly are far from being stupid. To the contrary, because of their handicap of not being able to read or write, these people have been forced to "live by their wits" in a reasonably well-educated society.

4. The most difficult of all the types of barriers to identify from the interviews with the students were the psychological barriers. Although there were probably more of these barriers affecting the students' decisions of whether or not to enroll in an adult literacy class than are identified here, the observers chose to categorize those that were listed by students into three general divisions. They are: a) fear of failure, b) fear of school, and c) fear of change.

a. Fear of failure was the one psychological barrier that was reported most often. This barrier was usually reported in a form such as, "I didn't start in this class for a long time after I heard about it, because I wasn't really sure that I could learn anything. Maybe I really was too dumb to learn." Although the observers heard evidence of this fear stated in other forms, they all basically expressed the fear the the person involved would fail in this new endeavor as he had in others throughout his life.

b. The fear of the school experience was a barrier that was mentioned almost exclusively by those students who had had some past school experience. When this fear was reported, it almost always connected with a concrete unpleasant past school experience, e.g., being placed in a class due to physical size rather than according to ability, being ridiculed by either teacher or pupils because they were slower than other students, or not being accepted by pupils because they were unable to attend regularly. This fear seemed to have been adequately summed up by one statement heard by one of the observers: "If I'd have had people who understood me like these people do and had a teacher like the one I have now when I was a child, I don't think they'd have ever got me out of school."

c. The third psychological barrier listed, fear of change was mentioned least often by the students interviewed; however, the observers felt that this was one of the barriers that probably confronted the majority of those students enrolled in the adult literacy classes at one time or another. The fear of change, or in essence, the "fear of the unknown," was most often reported to the observers in a form dealing with the student's concern over the unknown effect that this new experience might have on his relationship with his family and friends.

An important thing for the reader to bear in mind is that while all kinds of barriers were listed separately they are interrelated. The absolute effect of one upon the other is an unknown quantity. In spite of this fact, it is clear that economic and family barriers are closely related and reinforce each other and that the social and psychological barriers are likewise closely related and reinforce each other. It is further believed that teachers and administrators must be aware of these barriers facing the adult illiterate and must be ready and willing to help this person overcome the barriers facing him if the programs are to be totally effective.

Defense Mechanisms

Another factor that was identified as having an effect upon basic adult educational programs and the methods and techniques used in such classes was the defense mechanism employed by the illiterate adult. A vast array of such mechanisms was observed by the team, it was noted that the extent to which a mechanism would be used by an individual illiterate was directly proportional to the degree of illiteracy of the individual. Some of the more common defense mechanisms observed were: 1) the obvious presence of a book or newspaper, 2) carrying several pencils and/or ballpoint pens in a very conspicuous place, 3) not having eye glasses when asked to read, 4) injury to "writing hand" when threatened with a situation calling for written response, 5) an extremely well-developed oral expression ability with a reasonable vocabulary. There are almost as many others as there are illiterates, but the important point for the teachers to bear in mind is that each illiterate enrollee will almost certainly have one or more of these mechanisms developed to a certain degree.

Among the teachers identified by the team as being successful in terms of student progress, it was noted that without exception these teachers always seemed to discuss this problem. Many of these teachers and, in some cases the administrators, listed ways in which they used these defense mechanisms to stimulate and increase student motivation, to help determine the students' needs, to help develop individualized programs for a student, etc.

THE TEACHING STAFF

Who were the teachers of the adult literacy classes observed in the communities visited? In the public school programs, teachers were generally drawn from among the staff of the local public schools. The majority of them were elementary school teachers, although some were drawn from among the secondary school staff, and some were full-time teachers of adults. No attempt was made to determine the amount of formal training that they had received; however, the general impression formed by the team was that a large majority of them did have a least a baccelaureate degree and some had some advance training. All were people who met the certification standards for public school teachers established by the state in which they were teaching. The only instances in which the preceding statement required qualification was where adult illiterates were trained in "reading labs" which used a totally programed learning approach. The person in charge of each of these "labs" was called a director and served the students only in an advisory capacity.

In the programs administered by private, nonprofit foundations, teachers were drawn from all possible sources. While many teachers observed in these programs were retired public school elementary teachers, the majority in these nonprofit, voluntary adult literacy programs were middle-aged, married women with a strong sense of civic responsibility. The general level of educational background appeared to be approximately the same as was observed in the public school programs.

Availability of Staff

One of the questions asked of the directors concerned the availability of instructors. Although some initial difficulty was usually experienced, most directors stated they were able to procure the type of instructor they wanted for their programs. In view of the shortage of teachers and the tangential nature of most adult education programs, the directors statements provoke the further question: "Are the employment standards for the instructional staff so low that almost anyone would qualify?" This question was not asked of directors, but in light of the existing shortage of certified teachers, it seems relevant.

Qualification of Instructors

"What are the qualifications you look for in hiring your instructors?" Usually this question was answered in terms of the kind of teacher employed and the attributes most commonly found. The three kinds in public school programs can be identified as: 1) the elementary school teacher, 2) the secondary school teacher, 3) the retired teacher, 4) the married women with excess leisure, 5) the master teacher, and 6) the manager.

1) The elementary teacher

    a) is more firmly grounded in the basic developmental phases of reading, writing, and arithmetic than are other day school teachers;

   - b) is more accustomed to moving at a slow rate and, therefore, tends to be more patient with illiterate adults;
   - c) is better acquainted with developmental materials;
   - d) generally knows more about how to teach the basic literacy skills than do teachers at higher levels.

2) The secondary teacher
   - a) is used to working with older students. Therefore, she would be able to relate more readily to adults .
   - b) is accustomed to the psychology of working with adolescents in a learning situation, which more closely parallels working with adults than does the psychology involved in working with elementary students,
   - c) has more flexible and more varied teaching load.

3) The retired teacher
   - a) is available on a part-time basis and generally has a more flexible schedule,
   - b) is more sympathetic toward the adult illiterate student,
   - c) has to spend time in preparation of lessons, and as a result is usually more conscientious in his efforts.

4) The married woman with excess leisure
   - a) is available on a part-time basis and generally has a more flexible schedule,
   - b) has to spend time in preparation of lessons, and as a result is usually more conscientious in her efforts,
   - c) is usually strongly motivated in either a service or religious aspect.

5) The fifth category identified was the master teacher. A considerably smaller number of directors took the position that it does not matter from which grade level the teacher comes so long as he is a "good teacher." It was extremely difficult to get an operational definition of a "good teacher" from these directors. From observations of and interview with some of the most successful teachers in the programs visited, the observation team believes that this success was due primarily to the fact that the individual teacher:

   - a) has well in mind those objectives pertaining to teaching the basic literacy skills,

b) establishes rapport with the individual students as soon as possible in order to determine, or perhaps to develop, their individual objectives,

c) is familiar with or has a sensitivity for methods and techniques that are effective in teaching adults,

d) uses all identifiable objectives in developing a "main course" to follow in teaching the class, and yet maintains sufficient flexibility so that, if necessary, the main course can be and is changed,

e) uses the individual student's objectives to design individual "subsidiary courses" to either supplement the main course or to help the student master the content being taught in the main course,

f) must understand the students--who, what, and why they are what they are,

g) must be able to accept the student for what he is--a person of value who is capable of learning,

h) must start the student where he is and teach in terms of the student's value system and culture,

i) must be able to recognize the individual students' goals,

j) must have a firm grasp of and understanding of human relations,

k) must have an understanding of group dynamics and their value in the classroom.

6) The sixth category may be identified as the manager. One director who made use of programed learning employed only essential nonteaching personnel. This director argued that a good program did not need a teacher. It was his experience that "professional teachers frequently interjected themselves into the programed learning situation unnecessarily, thus interfering with the structural essentials to programed learning." This director indicated that the following would be found in a "good manager":

a) a good working knowledge of the available programs,

b) a good grasp of the steps involved in carrying out programed learning,

c) a good sense of organization,

d) refraining from interjecting himself between the student and the programed learning material.

It is interesting to note that in all but one center the persons in charge of the centers were drawn from fields other than education.

These six approaches to the instructional requirements identified in public school programs indicate sharp divisions both in practice and in theory as to the type of program which is needed and what type of teaching is required.

It is apparent from the team's observation that further study of the director's influence over and relationship to his instructional personnel is greatly needed. Other information needed involves study of the perceptions that the administrators have of literacy education as they are reflected in the staffing, procurement of facilities and material, and the emphasis generally given to the literacy programs.

Within the voluntary programs visited, the concensus of opinions expressed by directors concerning the qualifications of their teaching staff was that the primary requisites be a genuine interest in working with illiterate adults. However, these directors did list certain other criteria that were considered in selecting their teaching staff. These could be summarized as:

a) A baccalaurate degree in a social science field, if possible.

b) Teaching experience or experience in a social service agency was desirable.

c) An awareness and understanding of the social and psychological implication of adult illiteracy.

These particular attributes are those that the team believes are necessary for any teacher to possess if he is to be successful. While a few public school administrators did identify some of these as being a part of their selection criteria, for the most part it seemed that the administrators of volunteer programs were much more cognizant of the need for them. At the same time it must also be emphasized that very few of the teachers in the volunteer programs possessed all of these criteria.

One of the greatest problems facing the administrators of volunteer programs was that of getting teachers into the program who became so highly emotionally involved with the students that they could not look at their program, methods, techniques with any degree of objectivity. This problem is not limited to teachers alone. In one program the team was able to observe a director who actually considered each student as her child and as a result was operating a very ineffective and inefficient basic adult education program.

Reasons for Teaching

The directors were asked what they perceived to be the most frequent reasons why their teachers wanted to teach in the adult literacy program. The team also asked the teachers themselves why they chose to do this work. A summary of their answers follows.

a) To earn extra money

One reason given by some directors was that some teachers worked to augment their income. Although this reason was given or indicated in several responses, its import was de-emphasized, perhaps because of cultural values which look with disdain on the supposed mercenary aspects of teaching. However, it should be pointed out that there is no great monetary reward for this type of teaching. The per-hour pay rate varied from $3.00 to $5.00, but it seemed that more hours were served than the teachers received remunerations for. Many out-of-class hours were used by the teacher in developing homemade materials and in conferring with their adult students. On the other hand, in a large city system a principal indicated that earning money was an important recruitment factor.

The observation team believes that the monetary reward involved in adult literacy programs was not the prime reason from the teachers' point of view. This does not mean that the observers condone the low salary schedule found in all programs. In fact the team found it surprising and fortunate that so many good teachers could be obtained for such low rates of remuneration in view of the services rendered.

b) To utilize leisure time

An excess of free time acquired after women teachers' children were grown was a reason given by many directors and teachers. This phenomenon was generally found in small population centers and with the nonprofit, voluntary programs. However, none of the personnel of centers in the large cities visited identified this reason or indicated that the school system recruited from this type of population. The problem of certifying these women and the need of helping men teachers within the school system to augment their income may be working against their recruitment. The adult literacy programs are enrolling only a small percentage of the adults who need the education. Because of the great instructional needs of the literacy programs all qualified teachers should be considered. If such programs are to do more than merely "scratch the surface" of the problem (which is apparently the state of affairs at this time), there is a great need to recruit mature women teachers. Unfortunately, no updating or re-educational program for these women was found, nor did the observers hear anyone speak of this problem.[3]

c) To augment retirement pension

Retired school teachers were employed in both large and small city systems in adult literacy programs. Their numbers were not large, and, in most cases, they were female elementary school teachers. Generally they were employed to work with the zero to fifth-grade level of adults. These teachers, because of retirement, had a good deal of free time and, being known to the school administration, were seen as a source of meeting the instructional needs for illiteracy classes.

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[3] It should be noted that, while some of these women had managed to continue teaching while their children were growing, many had not taught since the birth of their first child.

The suitability of such teachers for adult literacy education needs to be carefully examined. It is the team's opinion, from site observations that perhaps not all retired teachers should be considered for adult literacy programs. Some may not be able to make the necessary changes in their approach to teaching to enable them to work effectively with adult illiterates. Since different approaches are needed for teaching adults, procedures used with children are likely to drive many adults from the classes. The solution may be found in retraining the retired elementary teacher. Whether this would be successful cannot be determined from our present knowledge. It would seem profitable to make an attempt in view of the great need for instructors in adult literacy programs and the large number of retired elementary teachers.

d) To render service

Certainly one would expect to find in any profession the concept of service. This idea was voiced by both directors and teachers alike. There are at least two dimensions of the concept of service documented in the interviews with directors and teachers.

The Southern states and the highly industrialized metropolitan areas, the observers were told, have a shortage of highly skilled artisans, i.e., electricians, welders, mechanics, etc. This phenomenon seemed to be a form of local shame, a problem that must be faced and eradicated. Bringing the level of workmanship up to the point that is expected of an artisan is a goal toward which some directors and teachers strive.

The second aspect was racial identification. Some Negro teachers stated that they felt a real responsibility to help their people. It was noted by the team that some of the Negro teachers expressed the "service concept" in the same terms as did the Negro students--"Now my people seem to be getting a break and I feel that it is up to me and others like me in the teaching role to help 'our' illiterates master these skills as rapidly as possible."

The psychological commitments to teaching in adult literacy programs must be carefully analyzed, since these forces may indeed mold the style of teaching and the needs which the instructor must satisfy in the teaching situation.

e) Enjoy teaching adults

It was of interest to discover among the teachers, the expression of satisfaction in teaching adult illiterates. The words of one instructor express the feeling of many: "I sometimes feel rather beat at the end of a teaching day and wonder why I let myself into teaching night school. But I always go home feeling very good after working with these adults."

Time and again the reward aspects of teaching adults was voiced. The absence of the discipline experienced in regular day school was mentioned by a few instructors. The high motivation of many of the adult students seemed to be contagious for some instructors.

Of course, not all teachers enjoy working with adult illiterates, some directors told the observation team. What are the differences between those teachers who enjoyed working with adults and those that do not? The directors did not know. It must be emphasized that within the voluntary programs observed the reasons given for teaching by teachers and administrators included only: use of leisure time; service; and enjoy teaching adults. Of these reasons, the one heard most often was the service aspect, closely followed by leisure time. The "service" motivation is, of course, most admirable, and if it exists in the connotation of "serving the illiterates to help them help themselves," should be encouraged by all administrators. However, the service motivation can be extremely dangerous to a program if a teacher who is so motivated has a primary goal, that of helping "those poor wretches." In such cases the teacher becomes so emotionally involved with the students and program that he cannot look at it objectively and in the final analysis literally smothers the program and students with his "GOOD (?) INTENTIONS."

Instructional Roles

The directors and instructors were then queried as to the roles they perceived the instructor should assume. From their responses and the team's observations, the following roles were identified:

1. Director. Both teachers and directors believed the program needs to be carefully planned by the instructor. In no classroom did the observers see the students enter into the planning of the program or curriculum. The observations were confirmed in discussions with the staff. A few teachers permitted and even encouraged the adult students to bring reading materials, e.g., sale catalogs, newspapers, books, for classroom use. The impression the team had of the students' attitude towards the teacher appeared to be complete acceptance of the instructor's direction.

In more sophisticated adult education classes this attitude generally would not be found. This phenomenon has been interpreted by some as a function of intelligence. Such conclusions may be unwarranted. More challenging of the instructor's position was noticed among the more advanced reading groups than in lower reading groups. Conceivably the sense of inadequacy in the area of reading promotes the submissiveness observed in lower reading groups. It is also possible that by the time the literacy classes have reached an advanced level, the persons with low intelligence are no longer in the class.

2. Tutor. This appears to be an inescapable role played by all of the observed teachers. Most directors and all teachers attest to its importance. They stated that individualized instruction cannot be avoided. It can be said that the personnel in the visited centers were aware of and tried to meet individual differences of adult learners with varying degrees of success. These more successful teachers provided individual materials and work periods so that they could circulate among the group and help each student individually.

3. Bookkeeper. The role of keeping records and the scheduling of work for the adult student was characteristic of the programed learning centers which were set up throughout one Southern state. A majority of programs insisted that a progress chart be kept for each student, but this was not extensive and often indicated only the student's name, when he began, the level at which he started, and his attendance. His achievement was recorded at the end of the particular program. The bookkeeper aspect of teaching in the adult literacy program was much reduced over that found in the regular day school.

The relative lack of bookkeeping is attributable to lack of secretarial help, hourly pay rates, lack of trained counselors to guide and assist teachers, and the attitude on the part of the instructors and directors that the student body is unstable. One director summed it up, "If we had time to do it we probably wouldn't have the staff. Besides, the student would probably have dropped out by the time we had collected the material." It was not the lack of validity of such a statement that concerned the team but the attitudes the statement expressed.

A few programs visited attempted to keep a file on each adult student. This was viewed as an integral part of their counselling program. The staffs of those school systems felt that such material would help the teacher in working with students.

4. Counselor. While some teachers did admit that they gave advice to some adults both on educational and vocational matters, this type of counselling was not widespread. A few teachers spoke of the needs that brought adults to these classes. They identified such motives as loneliness, need to get out of the house, need to be busy in order to forget the loss of someone close. Knowing these motives of their students, the teachers stated that they made a point of involving these people in the class activities and in chatting with them at break periods. The team's impression of the atmosphere of these teachers' classrooms was one of warmth, friendliness, and a freedom to relax and joke as peers.

In some public school systems, a qualified counselor was employed. Here, each student was individually interviewed on entering the program. As needed, the adult student could directly contact or be referred to the counselor for educational, vocational, and psychological counselling. The staff felt that this was of great value, as these sessions appeared to assist both the instructor and the student in identifying individual needs and problems which could and, in some cases, did repress students from learning. In certain cases, the school was able to work with social agencies in helping students. One teacher made the point, citing actual situations, that personal problems of adults sometimes make it impossible for them to learn. She concluded in the following manner: "I sometimes wonder how they learn anything with all the problems that are pushing on them."

5. Model. No teacher or director spoke of this instructional role. However, the observation team believed this to be a significant factor in the educative experiences of the adult students in literacy programs. The competency of the instructor appeared to be a model of what could be obtained with hard and persistent work. This is not to say that the instructor

was a model to be used for psychological identification, although this may also be the case. The model referred to here is the "example" of persistent hard work as a means of leading to achievement. One instructor actually expressed the concept by stating to the student, "Sure you can. If I can do it, you can do it, too." The instructor was trying to encourage the student by offering herself as a model (example). Students also expressed this role in terms such as, "I know that the book does it that way, but I like to do it the way Mr. ______ does it."

There is another aspect to the model role which should be explored. This aspect is "identification"; that is, the establishment of one's identity through another individual. The function of identification in adult literacy education is discussed in some detail in other sections.

The observations made generate several hypotheses for further study. For example, if there is such an instructional role as the model, is it bound by or restricted to social class, color, or cultural bias? Answers to questions such as this have far-reaching educational implications.

Teacher Training

As nearly as the team could determine both staffing and staff training were designated as areas of responsibility to be administered at the local level. For the most part, as has been pointed out, neither the administrators of public school nor the voluntary programs considered the availability of teachers to be a serious problem. Public school administrators, for the most part, alluded to the fact that they could always fill their staff with elementary and secondary teachers. Among the directors of the voluntary programs, the team got the impressions that there would always be an adequate number of "service minded" individuals with which to staff their programs.

The team believes that with the exception of three or four programs, the training provided by the voluntary programs was more complete and of more value to the teachers than were the programs found in the public schools. Perhaps the reason for this was the widely diverse backgrounds of the persons teaching in the voluntary programs or the attitude expressed by many public school administrators that, "A good teacher can teach anyone." For the most part, the teacher training program found in the volunteer programs consisted of from two to five days of formal training by the administrative and existing teaching staff followed by a period of internship in a classroom with an experienced teacher or teachers.

The outstanding public school teacher training program observed was one that covered a ten-week period. Approximately one-third of this time was spent in a formal, organized classroom approach where the trainees heard lectures, participated in seminars, laboratories, etc., and the remainder of the training was received in the form of an internship under the supervision of a "master teacher" and a teacher supervisor. The trainees received training in adult education methods and techniques, teaching the basic literacy skills, developing materials, etc., from both the theoretical and the practical aspects.

In another public school program the director arranged the schedule in order that his teaching and administrative staff could meet once a week on a formal basis (for which they received their regular stipend), to discuss student problems and suggestions for the improvement of the programs. When needed, help was sought among specialists in the various behavioral sciences. Informal exchange among the staff was encouraged at all times. The director frequently sat in on these meetings, and, although the school system was fairly large, the observation team was surprised to note that the director could identify many of the students by name.

Other directors believed that basic courses in adult education given by state universities should be taken by their teachers and prinicpals. They identified the following types of courses:

a) General introduction to adult education .

b) Program planning for adult education.

c) Psychology of adult learning.

d) Administration of adult education programs.

Most public school programs had an orientation period at the beginning of the school year or semester. Generally these orientation periods were five to ten hours in length. The major proportion of the time was devoted to administrative matters. The sessions were conducted by means of a lecture-discussion format. Topics covered in these conferences included: differences between teaching adults and teaching children, available instructional materials, and administrative details.

A summary of the responses made by administrators, whose programs offered no teacher training other than a brief administrative conference prior to the opening of class, to an inquiry relative to the value and need of teacher training yielded several excuses:

a) One director argued that, "If a teacher was a good teacher to begin with, what needs to be done?" The implication was nothing. He dismissed the question, "What is a good teacher?" as an academician's "ivory tower" problem.

b) There is no money in the budget, nor is there any likelihood of getting such money.

c) The changing and part-time nature of teaching staff would make the expense of such workshops too great in terms of the direct returns.

d) It is questionable whether or not there is enough known about education to make such workshops profitable.

e) Part-time staff would not come.

f) The staff is too busy as it is, meeting the demand of adult students and community.

From the interviews with teachers throughout the thirty-five programs, all seemed to feel that there was a great need for teacher training regardless of whether their own administration offered such a training program. A summary of the remarks of teachers related to teacher training indicate that there are a great many training needs in order to develop effective teachers for adult basic education programs.

Specific training needs of teachers of adult illiterates:

1. Psychological and sociological peculiarities of adult illiterates.
2. Adult learning principles as they pertain to adult illiterates.
3. Psychology of the slow reader as applied to adult illiterates.
4. Group dynamics in the adult basic education classroom.
5. Human relations.
6. Identifying needs and immediate goals of the individual student.
7. Establishing attainable, measurable objectives.
8. Formulation of objectives around the individual's needs and goals.
9. Program evaluation.
10. Selection and evaluation of instructional materials.
11. Developing supplemental materials to meet individual needs.
12. Testing and the place of testing in the program.

While a great many of the above identified areas of need could be presented and covered through lectures and seminars, if the effectiveness of the training experience is to be maximized, provision must be made for practical experience and application. This latter statement is especially applicable when it is based on the assumption that a majority of the trainees will not have had teaching experience in the adult basic education classroom. A proposed institute format is presented in Appendix B.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND ADMINISTRATORS

Although a "technically different" type of general administrative structure was found in each of the visited states, the team identified three basically different types of organizational and administrative structures in the public school basic adult education programs.

1. A local administrator (director) with a high degree of local autonomy responsible only to a county board or commission of education. The director and county board are responsible to the state legislators from the county only insofar as financing the local program is concerned.

2. A local administrator (assistant superintendent) responsible to a superintendent and local board, both of whom have a great deal of autonomy.

3. A local administrator (assistant superintendent or director) responsible to a state supervisor and a local superintendent.

Looking more closely at the types of structures, in all cases there was, at the state level, some definite branch or division with the responsibility for supervising and/or administering all adult programs within the state and under the jurisdiction of the state department of public instruction. Generally, this division was a separate entity with a director responsible to the state superintendent.

In one state visited by the team, the division of adult education was a segment of the division of vocational and adult education. This type of structure was always found to exist at the local level. While reasonably successful adult literacy programs were found to exist within such a structure, some of the local directors with whom the team visited implied that there was a growing degree of dissatisfaction among the adult program administrators with this type of administrative structure. In general, such implications were drawn from comments such as "This system was reasonably satisfactory until the last few years when the demand for more and more adult programs has been increasing"; "More and more of our adult population are demanding more course offerings in 'general' adult and adult literacy education rather than in the 'vocational' areas due their increased amount of leisure time"; "While the vocational people can 'see' adult vocation programs, I don't feel that they are fully aware of the great need for adult literacy education and 'general adult education'"; and, "Do you feel that the existing teachers within the vocational schools fully understand the implications of adult literacy education and do they have the necessary competencies to teach adult illiterates? I have the feeling that they are aware of this problem only insofar as it directly affects their own vocational programs."

These criticisms are usually "ax grinding" on the part of some local adult program directors who were disgruntled and who had marked tendencies for "empire building." However, the team believes that, since this problem was identified by all administrators of adult programs at all levels, administrators should most certainly be asking the question, "Can all phases of adult education, including, adult basic, be most effectively administered through the division of vocational education or through a separate division of adult education?"

In general, the same basic type of administrative structure was found to exist in all voluntary basic adult education programs observed. Usually these programs were under the direction of one full-time director serving on a voluntary basis with a small administrative staff or part-time volunteers. This staff was, in general, responsible for recruiting and training the teaching staff; developing and/or supervising the development of teaching materials; publicizing and promoting the program; arranging for classrooms and facilities; raising funds; and, in some instances, even serving as placement officers for graduates of the program.

All of the voluntary programs observed had been started as a service organization to serve the undereducated within the community and, for the most part, were still considered as such. All had a strong advisory council usually consisting of local influential citizens. All administrative decisions made by the director and the administrative staff were subject to the approval of this council. In most cases the only paid personnel within the entire organization was the secretarial staff.

Administrative Decisions

Returning to the three types of administrative structures, in the case of the locally autonomous director it was found that, with the exception of financing, all administrative decisions were made by the local director subject only to the approval of the local county school commission. The local unit was responsible for the development of an operating budget each year. The local unit made decisions regarding finances as far as county funds and student fees were concerned. For the remaining portion of the budget, the local administrative unit submitted its budget to the local state representatives who in turn submitted this budget as a segment of the total state educational budget to be acted upon by the state legislative bodies and the governor.

In the case of the second administrative structure where the major portion of the operating funds for the adult literacy programs come from local sources, decisions such as finances, facilities, communications, overall administrative policy, and administrative staffing seem to be the responsibility of the local superintendent and board of education. Decisions such as classroom staffing, curriculum, materials, etc., are usually the responsibility of the assistant superintendent and his immediate staff, subject to approval of the superintendent and local board. All decisions must be in line with policies and regulations established by the state departments of education and the local governing bodies.

The third administrative structure involves two distinctly different types of structure at the level of the state director of adult programs. When the adult literacy training was conducted through the medium of programed learning "reading labs" (3a), certain administrative decisions were made at a different level than they were in the case where there were no "reading labs" (3b). In both cases administrative decisions such as the formulation of policy for the general operation of the total school system, (including adult programs) were made by the state board of education and the superintendent.

When the "programed reading labs" were used, practically all administrative decisions were made by the person responsible for the adult programs at the state level. The decisions included curriculum formulation, materials to be used in the labs. About the only administrative decisions left for the director of the labs to make were those concerning the hours the labs would be open, promotion and public relations, and record keeping.

In terms of decision-making in the cases where the adult illiterates are trained in a class setting in the local centers, the team noted that the level at which many administrative decisions are made was different from that found in 3a. In the 3b structure, the state director of adult programs was generally responsible for the decisions establishing policy for the operation and/or establishment of local adult programs (including adult literacy); for establishing guidelines to be followed by local administrators in areas such as curriculum, materials, staffing, public relations and promotion; and for the selection of local administrators of adult programs. In most cases the selection of the local administrators of adult programs was made by the local superintendent subject to the approval of the state director of adult programs. This state director also had the added responsibility of supervising local administrators and their programs.

In administrative structures classified by the team as 3b, it appeared that the local administrators generally were responsible for making decisions (as were pointed out earlier), were subject to the approval of the state director and the local superintendent, and had to be in line with the state and local laws and regulations.

Promotion and Public Relations

As has been pointed out in the preceeding section, this aspect of the adult literacy program was, in general, the responsibility of the local administrator. The amount and types of promotion and public relations approaches used to attract the adult illiterates to literacy classes varied a great deal from program to program; almost all types of media and approaches were observed.

One state made wide use of mass media. Here prospective students were informed of the program through public service spot announcements on radio and television; through large paid advertisements in local newspapers; through mass mailing of brochures and pamphlets; and through flyers that were folded in with the daily newspaper delivered by paperboys.

In this area the adult literacy programs also made use of "Operation Alphabet" to attract students to their adult literacy classes. This television program was telecast by both local educational and commercial TV channels, and neighborhood "study groups" were organized to supplement the televised program. Throughout the series of programs the students were reminded by the local announcer that local adult literacy classes were available to enable them to advance to higher levels of reading ability. The local directors of the adult literacy programs felt that, while the "Operation Alphabet" program advanced too slowly to challenge the participants fully, it did definitely serve as a stimulant to the enrollment in the literacy classes offered.

Other programs relied, to a great extent, upon personal contact through cooperating agencies such as welfare, agricultural extension, service clubs, churches, PTA groups, and upon contact with the parents through their children in school. In many of the programs observed application forms and informative materials were sent home with the school children.

All of the observed programs made adequate use of attractive, well-designed leaflets and brochures, but the methods of distribution varied from community to community. Word-of-mouth promotions were found in all programs. All directors and teachers were quick to emphasize the value of this approach to inform prospective clientele. In one program, a teacher pointed out one woman who was "personally responsible" for getting eighteen of her friends enrolled in a literacy class in one quarter. In another class that was visited, the observers were informed that all of the class members, except two, had found out about the class through their church.

Regardless of the kind of promotional technique or combination of techniques used, it appeared to the observers that the ultimate effectiveness of these techniques in terms of initial and continued enrollment, was dependent primarily upon two factors. One is, "Whether the administrators and teachers had done an effective job of selling local influential persons (power structure) on the ultimate value of the program to the clientele and their community." This seemed to be supported by the fact that, where the enrollments were high and recruitment of students did not seem to be a problem, the staff had involved these local influentials in the planning and promotion of the program and were seemingly proud of this fact. On the other hand, where this had apparently not been done, the observers heard complaints about the lack of cooperation from the churches, other local agencies, and general lack of support from the community.

The second factor appeared to be the lack of awareness, or refusal, on the part of the staff to recognize the existence of the barriers facing the prospective students. This was noted in conversations with many of the administrators, especially when the observers were raising questions pertaining to their promotional and public relations programs.

In instances where the existing programs were not operating at full capacity of the physical facilities, it seemed that the administrators should be wondering, "What is there about the illiterate population that is causing my promotional program to be ineffective?"

An alarmingly high proportion of these administrators implied that they felt they were doing an adequate job of promoting their adult literacy programs. This implication is drawn from statements such as, "Our public relations and promotion programs are fine the way they are. We have plenty of students in the classes"; "We are doing a good job promoting this literacy program. If we get any more students we wouldn't have room for them"; or "We are serving all of the people who are interested as it is; do we even want those that we have to go out and bring in?"

These statements seem to typify two kinds of administrators both of whom exhibited a marked degree of complacency about the promotional aspects of these adult literacy programs. In the one case, the existing facilities allocated to the literacy programs were being used to capacity. In such cases it appeared to the team that the administrators should have been asking, "Since our facilities are being filled and we are still reaching such a low proportion of the illiterate population in the community, are our facilities and staff adequate?" and, "How can we increase the staff and facilities to better serve this group?"

In the case of the other type of administrator who seemed to be complacent about this promotional program, it appeared to the observers that this individual should be finding out whether or not there was really a need for an adult literacy program in his community. If he found that there was a real need, then he should identify the reasons why his program was not operating at the full capacity of its facilities.

Another factor of concern to the observers was the lack, not only of written specific objectives for the program (as has been pointed out earlier in this paper, but also the noticeable lack of any criteria upon which the administrators based their evaluative judgments regarding the effectiveness of their promotional and public relations programs. The only criteria that were even mentioned by the administrators were in terms of the number of students enrolled and the dropout ratio.

Placement of the Students

Once the individual had developed adequate motivation, had surmounted the barriers facing him, and had been recruited into an adult literacy program, the next problem facing the teacher and administrator was that of placing the student so as to form a class that was reasonably homogeneous according to the level of the students' mastery of the literacy skills. In general, six distinct patterns of student placement practice were identified. In the final analysis, decisions related to placement of students was an administrative decision that was made by the local administrators of adult literacy programs.

A placement practice, which was more prevalent in the West, consisted of making the placement based entirely upon the decision of the guidance counselor. In this practice, the prospective student was sent to a conference with a guidance counselor almost immediately upon entering the building. Following this conference, he was assigned to a class for either "primary," "intermediate," or "advanced" basic adult students. After the placement decision had been reached, the student was then registered and taken to meet his teacher and class. In this type of placement process, no formal testing involving the use of standardized tests was done until the student had been in the class for at least four weeks. One administrator pointed out that in his school they had found that by subjecting the potential student to a test situation before he ever was admitted, literally "lost" them fifty per cent of their potential enrollment.

Another practice that was commonly used in some areas, and was standard procedure in the MDTA programs, was based on both objective and subjective judgments. The prospective student was first given a battery of standardized tests in reading and arithmetic and then interviewed by a guidance counselor after the tests were scored. Placement in a class was then based on both the test scores and the counselor's judgment. It was pointed out that in some instances students were placed in a lower level class than the test scores had indicated because the counselor felt that, due to lack of confidence and/or other observable deficiences, the student was not ready to start at the specific level as was indicated by test results. Although none of the persons using this particular placement practice discussed the effect of testing upon potential students, the team feels that, due to the anxiety induced by a test situation at this stage of the placement process, serious consideration should be given to abandonment of testing in placement.

Another practice, which seemed to be enjoying a rather high degree of success, was one which closely paralleled the preceding practice. In this case, the student's reading ability was measured by an "informal reading analysis"--having the student read materials that had been identified with specific grade levels of reading ability. This assessment was followed by an interview with a guidance counselor and further followed by an interview with a teacher working with students of the level at which the guidance person felt that the interviewee should be assigned. In this practice, placement was made only after the guidance counselor and the teacher had conferred.

The three remaining practices observed will be reported and described in a descending order, according to their observed effectiveness. In one program students were placed according to an informal reading analysis administered by the teachers of the adult literacy classes. Here the same basic type of informal reading analysis was used as was described above. This system seemed to be working reasonably well in this program, but its effectiveness would almost totally depend upon the ability of the teacher using it.

In two programs, placement was based solely upon the results of a battery of standardized tests designed to measure the level of ability in the literacy skills. The apparent weaknesses of this system were that it failed to take into account the students feelings, fears, and attitudes toward this new experience he was about to face and that the validity of the tests were questionable when they were administered to adult illiterates. In one instance, the observers felt that the students had been "overrated" and had been placed in higher grade-level classes than they should have been.

In the sixth type of placement practice observed, the students were placed in a particular grade level on the basis of an informal interview with a team of two or three teachers working with the adult literacy program. It was admitted, and the observers saw evidence of the fact, that this system was not "totally effective."

Since guidance counselors were being used in various capacities in the placement practices in some of the programs, what is the most effective role that this person can assume in placing the adult illiterate? Should the guidance counselor in adult illiteracy programs have special training, or is a person trained to counsel children and youth in a day school setting suitable for use in this role?

Types of Administrators

Within the programs visited the observation team was able to observe and identify several types of local directors (administrators) in terms of their effectiveness and attitudes displayed toward the adult literacy programs. As one might expect, it was possible to classify these directors from "quite effective" to and through the person who "told a good story." This same situation was found to exist relative to the attitudes displayed by the administrators toward adult literacy education where the attitudes displayed ranged from a great awareness of and sympathy toward the program to the individual who felt that his only responsibility was to provide a program for those who enrolled.

In instances where the team observed such an "air of complacency" being displayed toward the program by the administration and some of the teachers, this complacency was usually verbalized as, "We're reaching all that are interested now. Those who don't come to us probably aren't interested in learning anyhow." While this expression of complacency was not nearly so prevalent among teachers as it was among administrators, it was found most often in programs where persons were teaching a full load in day school (elementary or secondary) and also teaching adult basic education classes at night. In many of these instances this attitude appeared to be in direct correlation to "overwork and underpay." The team quite strongly feels that, if administrators are to have a successful adult basic education program using day school teachers for staff, they must make some provision to provide "relief" time for these people in order that no one will be teaching more than a normal full-time load. A teacher of illiterates must be extremely enthusiastic and at peak efficiency, if they are to do their best possible job in teaching these people. For adult basic education to be most effective, it absolutely cannot be considered as a "sideline" by anyone in the system--the administration, teaching staff, or board of education.

One of the most apparent weaknesses noted in the administration of the adult literacy programs observed was the great discrepancy between the version of the local adult literacy programs received from the director and the version from the total staff within the local centers. The observations of the operations of the classes seemed to coincide quite closely with the version given by the center staffs. From this the team feels that apparently too many of the adult literacy program directors were relying too much on administrative "directives" and not enough on administrative "conferences" involving the total staff.

The team strongly believes that a definite, direct relationship exists between the local director's (administrator's) attitude toward adult illiteracy, literacy education, and his philosophy of education and the apparent success or lack of success of the local adult literacy program. This belief stems from the fact that for the most part the administrative decisions made by the local director, such as staffing, teacher in-service training, curriculum determination, selection of materials, placement procedures, and public relations and promotion, are all based on and a result of his attitudes toward the program, his own philosophies, and the flexibility that he is able to maintain toward the staff, curriculum, and students.

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CHAPTER III

INSTRUCTION-LEARNING

In discussing the instruction-learning processes as they occur in adult basic education, the team will not only report the results of their observations and interviews but will also inject some of their own thinking. This will be expressed in terms of methods, principles, and theories that they feel could or should be used in an effort to strengthen existing instruction-learning processes in adult basic education.

This chapter will be presented in five sections in order to report the team's observations and hypotheses developed from observation, interviews, and experience as clearly and concisely as possible. These five sections will deal with material, observations and findings in the areas of: 1) motivation, 2) assimilation, 3) transfer, 4) latent learning, 5) programed learning, and 6) identification.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is considered by the majority of professional workers in fundamental education as the one most important ingredient in the educational processes involving adult learners. Teachers, counselors, and administrators identified the basic importance of recognizing and making use of drives, needs, and motives that adults bring to the learning tasks. Observations of classrooms verified the central position given to motivation as stated by teachers in programs of fundamental education. It was their premise that participants must be motivated to come and motivated to stay; to continue to come they must be motivated to learn.

The data on motivation which the observation team obtained from interviews with the professional workers and the participants themselves and from direct observations are classifiable into the following categories:

1. Motives for coming to programs in fundamental education.

2. Motives for staying in the program.

3. The use of motivation in instructional-learning situations.

Motives for Enrolling

Most professional workers took the position that unless the illiterate was willing to face up to the reality that he was an illiterate and that he was capable of becoming literate, little if anything could be done for him. The great problem was to change the self-image.[4] The bravado characteristic of a few illiterates was shown to be invariably an ego protective mechanism; many case studies enumerated by several teachers attested to this condition. The vast majority of illiterates were described by these teachers as "timid," "discouraged," and "unaggressive." They were described as having little initiative, limited degree of trust, and a very high dependency need--particularly expressed during their first weeks of class. The teachers described, how these adults sought in many different ways, but at the same time evaded, talking with teachers. Some teachers believed that these people were expressing a need for recognition, appreciation, and perhaps even love. The observation was made that perhaps this may have been the first series of adult relationships in which another person (in this case the teacher) appeared to be sincerely interested in the individual as a person. The point was extended by a counselor in an adult school, and a few teachers, that perhaps this may have been the first time in his whole school life that another responsible human being had shown interest in him as a person.

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[4] Boyd, Robert D., "Dynamics of Adult Education", Journal of Adult Education, (Spring 1964) XIV, No. 3, pp. 131-136.

Another interpretation for seeking a closer relationship with the teacher was the need to identify because of the changing identity the illiterate was experiencing. He was becoming like that group of people with whom he could not identify for he was separated from them in one vital area of communication.

From interviews with many illiterates and beginning readers, it was readily observable that they were or had changed their image of themselves. The extent of this change varied from individual to individual. With some it was reflected in many different areas of their lives. With others it appeared to be limited to the area of capability in learning new things and skills. These results would strongly support the position that to come seriously to learn requires an acceptance, or at least the recognition, that one lacks a skill or skills. It may now deeply require the acceptance of changing oneself and of becoming, somehow, a somewhat different person.

Many factors are undoubtedly responsible for forcing an individual to look at his shortcomings. Some of these were identified for the team by professional workers in the field and the participants themselves.

New economic opportunities for Negroes have given great impetus to literacy education for this segment of our population. Where previously there may have been little need for education because of the job opportunities that were available, now there was hope.

The movement of industrial plants into the South has also affected the literacy conditions of the whites in the Southern states. In order to get, to hold, and/or to advance in one's job reading and writing were necessary. The pressure for education combined with the acceptance of the industrial moves of our society has begun to destroy the pockets of illiteracy in the South.

Many women were enrolled in literacy classes. The majority of these women were there to learn how to read and write in order that they could receive specialized training in some vocational field. If they had worked before it was in some form of domestic help or janitorial service. Now they were seeking to be nurses' aids, cosmetologists, sales clerks, and general office workers. Some of them had been told they could do this. Some had known a friend or an acquaintance who had gone from near illiteracy to one of the above positions. Other reasons these women gave for returning to school were 1) change in marital status which, if they were to have some of the "good things" of life, they had to work; 2) husband out of work and they thought they could get a job if they were qualified; (3) need to supplement husband's income; 4) desire to get off the welfare rolls.

Recently many states have built and established adult education programs and schools. Many of these schools are conducted both day and night. There is, as a consequence, greater facilities and often conveniently located facilities to carry on the fundamental education of adults. The availability of education, although not the panacea that some inexperienced administrators may have hoped for, has been responsible for a much greater increase in adult literacy education. However, there were many cases where adults travelled a good distance by both car and public transportation to avail themselves of the offered programs.

There were some individuals who could be identified as being motivated to come by parent-image motives. These people frankly admitted to the observers or to their teachers that they wanted to help their children in school. They frequently added that they felt that if their children knew their parents could not read it would destroy or at least decrease the children's desire to finish school. One person stated that the reason he was in class was because one of his children was threatening to drop out of school because "You can't read or write and you get along all right, so why should I finish high school?" This person believed that if he could get an eighth-grade equivalent certificate, his youngster's argument would be ineffective. Surprisingly enough, some people in this category were grandparents who were quite concerned about their grandchildren and the effect that their illiteracy might have on their grandchildren.

There were some parents that reported they were in the literacy class because they believed that, if it were known that they could not read or write, their children's peer group would be limited. Here the team saw the pressures of social mobility.

The phenomena of social mobility appeared in the Negro-white class relationship. Several white students who were interviewed gave self-improvement as a motive for enrolling in literacy education. Although the observers could not tactically pursue the social-class meaning of self-improvement, some teachers did consider it as a strong possibility. It is only possible at this time to infer that for the low income whites the passage of civil rights legislation and the successful drive for improvement exhibited by the Negro presents a real challenge to the social status structure, that has in the past protected the illiterate, low income white.

Closely related to the preceding motivational forces, yet different enough that the observers felt that they should be identified separately, were the forces called "operation bootstrap" and "group interaction." "Operation bootstrap" was one that was listed exclusively by the Negro students. Persons placed in this category were those who made such statements as, "It looks like my people are beginning to get some breaks, and, if we are going to make anything of the breaks, it's up to us to get as much education as we can." or "If our people are ever going to amount to anything, it's up to me and people like me who ain't got no learnin' to get that learnin' just as fast as we can."

Some of the students interviewed by the observers stated quite bluntly that the only reason that they were enrolled in the literacy classes was to learn to read so that they could read the Bible. Most of the persons with religious motivations were older, and the majority were found in the Southern states visited.

Some students, both men and women, were very concerned with the interpersonal peer group relationships which they felt they were in because of their illiteracy. They stated this in terms of an inability to "talk to" and "visit with" their friends and neighbors because they would "find out" about the participants' state of illiteracy. One woman student told one observer, "I felt nervous when I used to talk to my friends. I could hardly bring myself to talk to people I didn't know very well. I just felt they would know I never went to school just as soon as I opened my mouth."

The last self-improvement motivational force identified was the one designated as social outlet. This type of motivation was found most commonly among those persons who were either receiving welfare payments or whose family incomes were extremely low. In one instance an individual made the statement, "I come to this class because it is the only chance I have to get away from the kids and the old man."

Some illiterates came "because they were brought." A friend who is attending a fundamental education class can provide and be a great motive to other illiterates. In one community the team visited, one woman was responsible for the enrollment of ten other women. She was a leader among these women and was able to motivate them not only to come, but to stay and learn. This was a dramatic case of a friend-bring-a-friend phenomena. It is difficult, if not impossible, to determine from school records the extent of this practice. That it is a frequent occurrence is unquestionable.

Ministers and informal community leaders have also been influential in motivating attendance. The team was not able to identify beyond inference what basic need or drive was being touched that allowed a friend or a minister or an informal community leader to influence an illiterate to enroll in fundamental educational programs.

Motives for Staying

The motive should be one of progress. Progress can be a highly subjective criterion. The team did not have an opportunity to talk with dropouts but was only able to learn about them indirectly from the perceptions given by friends who were still attending and by teachers.

Besides the motive of progress, which will be discussed later in some detail, what were the motives for staying? Among the most prominent to be recognized by teachers and students alike and, which in many classrooms was readily observable, were the pleasures and satisfaction derived from social relationships and interactions. These students enjoyed discussions ranging from current events to wildlife to the Bible to children. Given a permissive atmosphere, the students would begin a discussion at the least provocation. These discussions were conducted in good humor and often with a good deal of nonmalicious give-and-take. These classes could return to the work at hand easily and with much involvement and intent. "Formal" classes where such behavior was not in evidence and would be considered out of place impressed the team as dull, laboring, and mechanical; there was also much whispering between students. The team found it more difficult to carry on a conversation with student members of such a class as compared with members of a more permissive classroom. Unfortunately, dropout rates for these two kinds of classrooms are not available. It is therefore impossible at this time to ascertain whether there is a significant difference between the holding power of these two types of classrooms.

Some teachers believed and operated on the assumption that taking an individual interest in each student helped greatly in holding the student in the program. They believed this was most crucial in the early phases of the program where progress was made very slowly and where it was necessary to establish that initial degree of trust in the formative stages of the re-education program. The teachers admitted that it took time both within the class period and after class meetings to establish this rapport, but they were quite convinced from their experiences that establishing such relationships helped to hold the participants in the program.

"Friends in the class" have been identified as being influential in preventing dropouts. Some students recalled, that during a certain period for a variety of reasons, they were not doing well. At these times a friend in the class helped them. These students appreciated the demands made on the teacher, and in the more permissive classrooms they feel very free to help one another. This availability of help appeared to help to hold students within the program. The friends which were identified were in many cases classroom friends only. It is important to note that where such friendships could not be established because of limitations within a formal classroom structure, another holding force would not be operative.

There is sufficient research to support the value of feedback as a necessary ingredient in classroom learning. The knowledge of where one is in the learning of any content or skill appears to be basic to learning. Some teachers help the student obtain such knowledge. Much of this knowledge is left to the student to obtain. In most assignments the student can get such information readily for himself. He knows the work or he does not. The s he has written looks like the s on the chalkboard or it does not. For these learnings he gets immediate feedback. The problem arises between what he expects of himself and what he is able to accomplish. This type of information must be worked out between the students and the teacher. Without this kind of knowledge it is understandable that students may experience an overpowering sense of floundering.

Some teachers explained and set work expectations. Among these were teachers who invited the students to help set such expectations. The students who had this opportunity reported to the observers that they liked this. These were generally the same teachers who encouraged discussions, and the bringing in of things of interest to the students. One was left with the impression that helping students to set goals helps to hold the students in the program. However, there is at present no information to support this impression.

A few teachers encouraged their students to bring reading problems to class. One teacher told about helping a group of women read the grocery ads in the local newspaper. Another teacher told how he helped his class read a catalogue. Another told how she helped the men in her class read job application forms. One program had as part of its instructional material, information relevant to the state driver's license examination.

These materials and the encouragement to bring them to class was believed to be a sound way to make the classes dynamic and meaningful. In a set of interviews with three teachers the value of meaningful material was stressed as a powerful means to hold students in a program.

Using Motivation in Instructional-Learning Situation

Some of the motivating processes that help to hold people in the program may also serve to motivate adults to learn. Those identified in this category are listed below:

1. Employing content and materials provided by the students in the instructional program.
2. Making use of feedback procedures.
3. Helping students to identify and set goals.
4. Tying the class work and content to the goals of the students.
5. Allowing interaction among students in order to foster friendly relationships which could assist in work achievement.
6. Providing opportunities for the students to talk with the teacher.

In addition to these the observation team noted many other means the teachers employed to encourage or motivate the adult students. Most teachers were very prompt to recognize real and hard effort on the part of an adult learner. They verbalized their recognition to the student by saying, "That was difficult, and you did very well." Encouragement has to be honest and most teachers stated that they found it very easy to be "straight forward." By this they meant that they could state to the adult student that a particular attempt was a good try but that much more work had to be done before the particular material would be mastered.

It would appear that adult students were perceived as being quite willing to accept the reality of the situation in learning provided that the criticism comes from a person they respect and that some progress in achievement is being made. Since most teachers kept the assigned learning well within the achievement level of their students, the problem of real difficulty with the material does not present a true problem. Keeping work within achievement levels acts as a true motivation for students. This condition is most crucial in the initial stages of literacy education.

Many teachers walked around the room talking and helping the students; they gave frequent encouragement to the students. Some teachers said this was necessary at the beginning stage. One teacher said, "These people need to be told they are doing well even though they may know it themselves."

Another form of motivation was the encouragement the group gave the learner. Some teachers made use of this phenomenon during the recitation periods of the class. This was accomplished by asking the class to agree with the teacher that Bill read it very well. Over a period of time the class accepts this behavior as a norm of the group and thus initiate the encouragement and appreciation behavior on their own. The point, however, is that this is a learned procedure and one which the teacher has taught.

At this point it may be profitable to examine tests as a means by which students may assess their own achievement as another possible means to motivate achievement. Many teachers seriously question the value of tests for this or any meaningful purpose. Tests, they argue, produce more anxiety than almost any other educational experience. One counselor argued that a few minutes with an adult would give you as much information as any test could. The validity of such statements cannot be examined until one is clear as to what is involved in testing--for what and with what.

It has been pointed out previously that testing adults when they first enroll may be one of the best ways to ensure that they will not return. But testing during instruction or following an instructional period of a few weeks may be seen as a different affair. Initially this may seem logical, but it is not founded on a knowledge of the literacy program. Most teachers had between twelve to twenty-four students. Within a very short time, the teachers had come to know their students' abilities and skills very well. It was not difficult for a teacher to report that last week Henry was only at a first-level book in a particular series. He is now reading a second-level book. Neither Henry nor the teacher needed to test for this knowledge. They both knew what he had achieved and where he stood.

Diagnostic tests are not needed for the same reason. Most of the well-qualified, well-trained teachers have identified long ago the reading problems of their students and could describe these precisely and accurately.

Most professional workers observed an interviewed had no place for testing in their program other than the informal day-by-day assessment and evaluation which they did as they watched and listened to their students. They would maintain they were constantly testing. Their position was that not only was there no need to test but formal testing created unnecessary "anxiety" and may even have resulted in the drop-out by certain adults. From the observations and interviews conducted by the visitation team, it appeared that this position had much merit and they, in general, would support it.

ASSIMILATION: THE LEARNING OF NEW CONTENT AND SKILLS

This section examines the question of how and by what methods and approaches are the illiterate adults taught new content and skills. The Report is based on the observations of classrooms and the conferences with teachers, counselors, and administrators, conducted by the visitation team.

The first subsection presents a brief case study of a fairly typical classroom session. At the time of the observation the class had been meeting for three or four weeks. There were sixteen regular members of the class present. The teacher had been teaching illiterates for three years. She was a mature, kind, and understanding person. Like many teachers of adults, she possessed a good sense of humor (although not specifically illustrated in the case study) and her open manner with people made it possible for her to establish good interpersonal relationships. She liked her work. (The quality of being highly involved in their work was characteristic of many teachers in the field.)

The description of the classroom although brief may provide the reader with the flavor and general tenor of a beginning class in literacy education.

Following the case study the second subsection presents a set of assumptions upon which the teaching by the majority of instructors appeared to be based. Some system had been devised to handle the multitude of observations that were made on classroom procedures and interactions. It was argued that examining the assumptions as the basis of these instructional-learning procedures may provide the most justifiable categorization system available at this time. Re-examining the data with this approach appears to have simplified a difficult organizational task and at the same time allows a systematic analysis of the instructional-learning procedures employed by the majority of teachers.

A Case Study

The case study presented here is a description of some twenty to thirty minutes of classroom time in an hour class for beginning readers. Most of the material is written in dialogue form in order to differentiate the procedures which were employed. Comments and additional descriptive material by the writer are placed in brackets.

T: Today we are going to work on the sound o (as in hot, otter). [The teacher writes the cursive letter O on the chalkboard and follows it with the two examples, hot and otter.] Let us all say this sound in these two words. [Teacher says the word and points; the students repeat the word.] Perhaps some members of our class may not know what an otter is. [Teacher notices that one man is very willing to supply the information.] Mr. Brown would you help us? [Mr. Brown briefly describes the size and type of animal and its general habitat.] That certainly helps. Are they raised commercially, do you know? [He says he doesn't know.] [The teacher now goes back to the chalkboard, points to each word, says it, and asks the class to repeat it, which they do.] Turn to page 14 in your reading books. [The reading book is a primary-level book in the Reader's Digest Series.] At the top you will see the new words. There is one there that we all know now. Marjorie, what is that word?

M: Otter.

T: Yes. Now let us look at the other words. The first one is surprise. Say it. [Class says the word.] The word after otter is cabin. [Class without being told responds aloud.] What sound does it have that we learned the other day? Sara?

S: a.

T: Yes. Can anyone think of another word that has the a sound? Peter?

P: Bat.

T: Yes? Pauline?

P: Fat.

T: Good. Can anyone tell us what the next new word is? Paul?

P: Long. [The word was lock.]

T: No, but did you see he got the beginning sound right. That's good. It begins with l. Well, the word is lock. Like lock the door.

P: Aren't the first two letters the same?

T: Yes, they are. Very good. Let me write them on the board. [She writes first lock then below long.] Paul is correct isn't he? Now let's go over the new words again just so we will have them clear in our minds. [Teacher reads each word and the class repeats after her.] Now let's go to our story. [The paragraphs generally contain no more than four sentences. The teacher chooses a student to read the first paragraph. In a subsequent interview the teacher informed us that she generally chose a good reader initially. After the good reader had completed the reading of the first paragraph the teacher chose another person to read it again. This person was generally not as good a reader. Having the better reader go first, the teacher points out, gave the poorer reader another opportunity to learn the words.]

As the observers watched class after class in basic literacy education, they were able to identify certain basic assumptions upon which much of the instruction dealing with the initial assimilation of information and skills was based. These assumptions, discussed below, are identified as having been accepted, knowingly or not, by the majority of observed teachers. It would be incorrect to describe all observed instruction as being based on these assumptions; however, they were so much in evidence that a systematic enumeration of the assumptions is believed to be of such conceptual importance that they are presented at this time. The logical justification of these assumptions and the evidence to support these approaches remain questions apart from the team's reporting at this point in the Report.

1. Initial symbol learning is primarily achieved through imitation. It may be more accurate to add that the imitation must be based on a good model. The case study reported above clearly illustrates this general assumption. The teacher provided the information and the adult students repeated the material. In some classrooms the team observed teachers instructing their students to look at her lips as she pronounced the word. Then they were to pronounce the word employing the same lip movements. In further advanced reading classes, a few teachers illustrated, by reading orally, the importance and value of reading in phrases. The classes were invariably requested to respond likewise. In conferences with the teachers, several strongly asserted the necessity of serving as a good model in the initial stages of symbol learning.

2. Reading is basically a mechanical process of habit formation. Reading was taught by producing appropriate stimuli and responses. With the totally illiterate pictures were coupled with words. The picture was employed because the content was assumed to be known. Thus a picture of a man, given with the stimulus (T: What is this?), was expected to produce the appropriate response, (S: It is a man.) Now the new stimulus was added, the word man. (T: This is the word man.) At more advanced levels the picture was eliminated so that the new word, stimulus, was given directly and must be responded to directly. Phonics were taught as a means to recognize words, or at least to be able to pronounce them. The phonic rules were taught in patterns of stimulus--response. The student was given a sound pattern which he was taught to respond to (ate = ate; gate, fate, eliminate, etc.)

3. Habit formations are established by repetition and reward. Workbooks, dittoed materials, chalkboard exercises, provided the repetition. Oral reading was also used by most teachers to provide repetition. ("You will notice that the word 'nominate' follows our rule of the long a sound.") The reward was perceived to come from the growing ability to read, praising statements from the teacher and other classmates, and getting the right answers on work material. It was pointed out to the team that other rewards may be involved, for example, developing a more positive self-image, and better interpersonal relations by being more adequate. These were attested to by both students and instructors.

In the teaching-learning situation it was the repetition and the reward of being correct that was in greatest evidence.

4. Habit formation must proceed step by step. The materials that the majority of teachers utilized proceeded slowly, introducing only one or two new concepts or skills with each "lesson." The teachers taught the students in this manner. ("Tonight we will be taking up the following three endings--ing, ed, s or es.") Each concept was dealt with in order. The teacher tried to determine that everyone had understood the material before proceeding to the next concept.

5. Proceeding step by step enables the wrong responses to be identified and corrected immediately. Since the material was presented in small units it was quite possible to check up on the students to determine whether mistakes had been corrected. Often the teachers would circulate among the students and make an individual inspection of every student's work. When the teacher was convinced that mistakes had been corrected he would go on to the next unit of work.

6. Initial reading skills are learned most effectively when the three approaches of silent, oral, and written work are used in conjunction as reinforcers. A common practice among many teachers was to have the students read the exercises, write answers to specific questions on the exercise, and to take up the exercise, first by reading the entire material orally then reading and discussing the students' answer to the given question. This pattern was observed at low as well as advanced reading levels.

7. The knowledge of the meaning of the word follows the ability to recognize the word. The term "recognize" refers solely to the pronunciation of the word upon seeing the word. The point was made by one instructor, "If you can't recognize the word, what is the use of discussing its meaning?" The assumption appeared to be that one had to be able to recognize the word before he could use it. This de-emphasizes the audio-oral dimension of language as compared to the emphasizing of the written form of the language.

8. Skills in word recognition lead to independent reading. Most instructors who were observed were essentially engaged in furthering word recognition skills. It appeared to be their assumption that once the adult students had these skills they could unlock most unknown or new words. There was a very heavy emphasis throughout all programs to develop word recognition skills. Workbook materials were used primarily for this purpose.

9. An orderly progression of reading habits exists. The teaching of vowels and single consonants preceded blends and phonemes. Most reading series were based on the orderly progression from single short and long vowels to conceivably more difficult intraphonic variables. A student must master X before he could move on and through X_2, X_3, X_4, ... X_n. The instructor thus taught in fixed order in building reading habits.

The team did not observe any developed curriculum guides to substantiate its observation. However, the teachers indicated that they followed the reading materials very closely and these were ordered in a hierarchy of reading skills that were to be developed.

10. Reading habits may be identified as general phenomena. The instructors took every student through the same progressive development of reading habits or skills. What this implied was that progressive development of reading habits can be defined apart from the individuality of students. It is not an argument that progression can be taught most effectively and efficiently. The situation remains that, whether one accepts system A or B, there is one that can be defined as a progressive development reading sequence without any student population in mind.

11. Following from 8 and 9 above, all students can learn to read by proceeding systematically along the step progression of reading habits. Every teacher that was observed proceeded on this assumption. There was very little individualization of instruction so far as developing different progressions of reading habits. Individualized instruction was directed toward helping to develop a functional level with a particular skill rather than the development of a different pattern of skill development. As was the case with a majority of regular day school classrooms, those adult classes were, to a greater or lesser degree, conducted in a set pattern for all students.

12. Lack of independence in reading skills necessitates immediate direction and supervision of the students' educative experiences. Only in one program was this assumption challenged, and that was found in the programed learning centers in one Southern state. (See p.) The instructors carried on a very close supervision and direction of learning experiences. After assigning the task, they frequently circulated among the students correcting and assisting them with their immediate assignment. A great deal of class time was spent in this manner.

Transfer of Learning

Learning something is of little value unless it can be applied in some mannner to other situations than the one in which it was learned. This is the question of transfer of learning. There are conflicting points of view in educational psychology as to how transfer occurs. However, none of the teachers who were interviewed possessed a level of sophistication where a knowledge of this conflict was admitted. These teachers realized the importance of transfer of learning but none had a good working knowledge of higher theory or research findings concerning transfer.

It is beyond the scope of the present section to discuss the professional training of adult teachers. Notwithstanding this writer would like to emphasize the assertions of the need for better teacher training programs. It is a naive assertion that more effective teaching can be obtained when teachers know and can use the information that is available on instruction-learning procedures. The processes of developing effective transfer of learning is central to effective, efficient learning.

A series of questions was raised regarding the process of transfer of learning as the team observed it happening in classrooms and heard it being discussed by teachers who were interviewed.

1. Did the teachers take transfer of learning into account?

2. What conception do the teachers have of transfer of learning?

3. If they did have such a concept, how did they provide for it?

4. What are the theories, research, and assumptions that support these procedures?

All the teachers observed appeared to be aware of the need for transfer of learning. Some teachers worked consistently and consciously on the problem. Most teachers were more sporatic and did not appear to work at it as an integral objective of all learning situations. In subsequent interviews with several of these teachers they volunteered their need to know more about how transfer occurs and what they could do to facilitate it in their classrooms.

It would be grossly incorrect to state that any one teacher did not take the problem of transfer of learning into account. However, the ignorance of most teachers of how transfer occurs was a discouraging reality. The procedures which are described in the following sections are frequently a matter of faith and inherited pediogogical practices rather than procedures based on understanding and insight.

Asking a teacher how he thought transfer occurred, often produced a period of silence. The silence was frequently followed by a statement very much like this, "Well, you know I have never really sat down like this and thought about it. I know that it is important and should be thought about. I suppose I have been so busy developing materials and helping the students I just have never took the time to think about it. I am glad you asked me."

The team also was glad but often very discouraged by such responses from conscientious teachers. They do want to help people, but most of them are very poorly prepared. It will be recalled that many of these teachers are certified elementary school teachers. Perhaps the criticism of the teachers' professional knowledge is far more general than just those teachers in adult education.

The paraphrased remarks quoted above clearly illustrate some of the problems related to teaching for transfer. First, most teachers do not have a working knowledge of the concept. Second, they do not take the time to develop a working knowledge of the concept although they give it "lip service." Third, apparently the routines of regular classes take so much time that little time is left to develop more effective and efficient procedures. Fourth, perhaps the oversentimentality of helping people prevents or excuses the possibility of developing better teaching procedures.

The reward system may not encourage expenditure of time in the improvement of basic procedures. It is quite gratifying to have students like, respect, and appreciate one as a teacher. This can be achieved by spending time with them. The question that is being raised here, is not, "Is it a good thing to have students like, respect, and appreciate me?" The question is, "What is the best use of my time in regard to the objectives of the educational program?" Perhaps spending time with students may be the best use. It should be a conscious decision and not one won by seduction.

The observation team found that the most accurate and most revealing method of finding out how a teacher conceptualized transfer of learning was to observe what took place in the classroom.

The question raised earlier in this section directed the teams' attention to classroom procedures. The question was, "How did the teachers provide for transfer of learning?"

The early work of Judd[5] and Thorndike[6] clearly demonstrated that there are two dimensions to the problem of transfer, namely, transfer of content, and transfer of process.

The attempts to provide transfer of contents took many different forms. They involved the transfer of content from one situation in the classroom to another. They also involved an exchange between the classroom and the contents found in the lives of those people outside of the classroom. Illustrations of the former type of content transfer follow.

a. Learning the sound of short a in a reading assignment. Later the a is encountered in a writing assignment. The teacher stops and questions the class on this particular learning.

b. Learning the function of e or a preceding consonant, e.g., gate, and subsequently re-employing (transferring) the new content to a new word in the reading assignment, e.g., state.

c. Learning a new word or sound in a recitation period (teacher working with the class, using chalkboard and question and answer procedures). Later the class is assigned a task in a workbook, which utilizes what the teacher had taught immediately preceding.

Illustrations of the latter type of content transfer (exchange between classroom and outside of the classroom experiences) follow.

a. A student brings in a catalog and the teacher selects from its content what has been covered in class and helps the students to recall and re-employ the content, e.g., "Here is a word that makes use of the rule we learned the other day." frame, in an advertisement of window frames.

b. A teacher requests the students to bring in materials. (Some bring in letters, newspapers, and applications for employment.) The teacher then used these to transfer the content that has been learned. She also used these materials to teach new content.

c. The teachers encourage testimonies, e.g., "Bill was telling me how he was able to read a new word by using our rule about e making the vowel before it sound long." The teacher writes the word on the chalkboard--skate.

Some teachers have developed extremely ingenious methods to provide for transfer of learning of content. Among these were:

a. Classroom newsletters

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[5] Judd, Charles H., "The Relation of Special Training to General Intelligence, Educational Review, 1908, 36: pp. 28-42.

[6] Thorndike, E. L., Educational Psychology, Vol. II, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913.

b. story charts (These are stories that are developed or told in the class and written on large newsprint by the teacher. This material served as reading material.)

c. puzzles which made use of words and sounds,

d. tape recordings or readings which could be used by individuals and subgroups for practice .

The most important criticism that the observation team would make of the type of transfer of learning which was observed was the lack of emphasis on the process of transfer.

The following is an explanation of what is meant by the process aspect of transfer: The teaching of the principle of the silent e affecting the preceding vowel comes close to an awareness of and a teaching for process. However, the rule was generally presented very mechanically and with emphasis more on the content than on the process. What was needed was a generalization of the process. The principle cited above was taught with one vowel. It is assumed that subsequent lessons which dealt with other vowels would re-employ the same principle. The principle should have been taught including all vowels, rather than with each separate vowel.

It would have been interesting to see a more process-oriented classroom. For example, would it be possible to teach the principles of phonics in very general terms such as making use of only the symbol C (consonants) and V (vowels). In the teaching of the principle of the silent e the teacher would have it generalized to a point somewhat higher than the recall of specific letters. The material would look something like this:

$$C\ V\ C = C\ V\ C$$

$$C\ V\ C\ V = C\ V\ C\ \overset{s}{V}$$

Such principles expressed in symbolic form would serve both to generalize the principle and test the understanding or comprehension of the principle on the part of the student.

Very little of this type of teaching was in evidence. Although this Report does not cover subjects other than reading in the adult basic education program, what was observed in reading concerning the transfer of processes would seem to be equally true for arithmetic, writing, and social studies.

The repetition that was characteristic of most of the teaching observed raises many questions. It may be necessary to repeat, review, and reteach. Illiterates may have some basic problems making this necessary. Yet, until there is evidence, (and outside of personal experience, there is none), the team must seriously question the tremendous amount of repetition that occurs in the instruction-learning program. One pertinent question is, if more instruction were based on the transfer of processes rather than content would this save on the repetition of material?

The rate and amount of forgetting in the initial stages of learning to read is, according to the testimony of teachers, very great. As a student progresses in the basic skills, forgetting becomes less of a problem. One must appreciate that forgetting in the context of the illiterate learning to read is a very complex problem. The psychological dimension of the problem, without question, holds many threats for the illiterate. The adjustment to a new role--that of a student--to a new self-image, and to new relationships with people and the world in general must indeed loom large in his eyes. To try to achieve in an area where for so long one has been an absolute "cripple" must take a good deal of direct concentration. There may well be little space left for prolonged attention to the work at hand. Even the ability to pay attention, the team was frequently informed, must be learned by most illiterates. All of those problems, and others undoubtedly interfere with learning.

Forgetting may also be due to poor structuring of the learning. It is here that the team questions the procedures used in developing transfer of learning.

In passing, it is significant to note that many teachers operated from the faulty knowledge that forgetting was a passive phenomenon due essentially to non-use. They are very surprised to be told that there is no evidence to support this idea and that what evidence there is supports the conception of forgetting as a dynamic phenomenon essentially due to repression, faulty structuring of knowledge, or inference. Again this re-emphasizes the need to have a continuous in-service educational program for teachers of adults.

Symbolic Learning (Latent Learning)

The observers noticed a very interesting phenomenon in the initial stages of learning exhibited by the "total illiterate." The very basic word lists have to be gone over and over again. Many, many repetitions appear to be necessary before the simple words are learned and retained. The retention problem seemed to be very great. Many words recognized one day frequently had to be identified for the student the following day. This pattern lasts for weeks, but gradually the student reaches a point of retaining a majority of the very basic vocabulary (approximately the level of a first-grade reader). Following this slow and painful learning period, progress accelerates.

It was recalled that Hebb's work with the blind may shed some light on this problem.[7] Blind persons, who as adults gain vision for the first time, were given the task of discriminating a circle from a triangle. This was found to be a very difficult task for these subjects to perform. The problem appears to arise when such an individual looks at the drawings of circles and triangles and is unable to handle them or to explore them through a sense of touch.

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[7] Hebb, D. O. Organization of Behavior. New York: Wiley and Co., 1948.

Is it possible that the abstract symbolism of language is, in its own way, so intangible initially that much repetition is necessary to build up the basic perceptual concepts and skills to handle the symbolism? Many more questions may be raised following this line of inquiry. The significant point is that what later comes readily in word recognition is, in the initial stages, so slow that the consideration of low intelligence may well be assumed by the helping teacher. Yet, subsequent performance would deny such an assumption being made.

The phenomenon may be a manifestation of latent learning. Outside of the very pervasive studies on latent learning in animals, very few studies have been reported on latent learning. Havighurst has discussed the concept of the teachable moment.[8] Others, especially in human development, have supported the possibility of optimum learning at specific developmental phases.

Some psychologists and educators may explain the phenomenon as the student's initial lack of self-confidence. Such an explanation may be accurate. There is a problem, however, in defining self-confidence. All illiterates are not social and economic failures or misfits.

The observers met totally illiterate students who were described as economically successful and socially prominent in their own circle of friends and/or communities. Examples of such students were, a master welder, a rural mail-carrier, and an assistant shipping clerk. However, granting that some emotional barriers may block learning, the possibility that the initial learning may be a perceptional problem in latent symbolic learning for the total illiterate would seem to warrant serious study. The similar learning difficulties that characterized the blind learners described by Hebb and the illiterate students are striking. Any series of studies along these lines would seem to hold and provide valuable insights to the initial learning difficulties of the totally illiterate students.

Programed Learning

Two types of equipment were being used in the programed learning centers, both using linear programing. The type most extensively employed was the book and progressive card systems. Generally, a short passage (material to be learned) is present. The student reads this. The first passage is followed by a question based on the first passage, or the first passage is repeated with incorrect words or blanks appearing in the material. The student is to answer the question or make necessary corrections or fill in the blanks. An answer key is then employed to check the students work. This pattern or variations of this scheme is repeated, taking the student through material of ever increasing difficulty. The more difficult or advanced material is assumed not to be perceived by the student because of the slow step progression of the newly introduced material.

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[8] Havighurst, R. J. Developmental Tasks and Education. New York: David McKay and Co., Inc., 1961, pp. 32-34.

The second type of programed learning equipment was the simple machine type. Except for the reading-rate machines, this type of programed learning was basically identical to the book or card type. The feedback process was through the use of keys, and these only differed in their mechanization aspect.

Because of the feedback devices the team concluded that the present equipment being employed in programed learning for total illiterates is most inadequate. A person who cannot read can make only very limited use of silent feedback devices. From the team's experiences in observing and discussing the learning process with total illiterates, oral feedback appeared to be basic to establishing correct responses and identifying incorrect responses in the majority of learning experiences for total illiterates. After a minimum number of basic words have been learned, a student is able to answer very simple questions and can use very simple correction sheets or keys to check his own work. (The problem of maintaining motivation is a pertinent concern at this stage.) This procedure is highly restricted because of the limited vocabulary and because it quickly becomes a highly repetitious procedure. Students admit that it is boring and that instruction is needed. Denied this instruction from the teacher, they seek and get it from other students or friends more advanced than themselves. When this occurs, and it appears much more than the directors are aware, it then ceases to be programed learning and becomes a regular instructional situation.

Programed learning may be very worthwhile and may be an effective and efficient approach to the needs of fundamental education. The team was unable to find any research or evaluation studies of programed learning for fundamental education programs. From what the team observed, it could not conclude that the stated advantages of programed learning were clearly demonstrated or visibly evident.

This is not to say that programed learning cannot be a powerful tool in the war against illiteracy. The problem appears to be that the inadequate equipment does not provide for the potential in the concept of programed learning. Computers, control of visual and auditory stimuli, and control of feedback, could conceivably accomplish the requirements that need to be met for programed learning in fundamental education programs. A device, for instance, that could monitor a response against a stimulus would be a great step forward. Such devices are well within our technical know-how. It would appear that an interdisciplinary approach to the problem would prove very profitable.

Identification

Identification in childhood education and in socialization has received much recognition and study. Most child psychologists admit to its importance. It has seldom been suggested that it may play an important role in adult education. The team came to view identification as possibly having a rather central role in the learning field of the adult illiterate student. The phase of identification that the team refers to is the "model-role" of the teacher. It was noticed that the students often reflected the manner of relationship both interpersonal and to the learning content that was exhibited by the teacher--serious teachers with the counterpart of serious students.

Certainly part of what was seen could be accounted for by the norm of group behavior. But many students' behavior went beyond this to include the model-role aspect of identification. If the teacher did it this way, they did it this way.

The geneses of this behavior were difficult to identify. Which students showed this modeling behavior and which did not were not differentiated. The extent and type of model-roles were not categorized. Nor was the relationship of this role to other dimensions of the learning situation studied. Yet, the investigation of these phenomena may well provide understandings and insights that could greatly facilitate learning for the adult illiterate student.

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CHAPTER IV

MATERIALS AND MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

This section will examine the relationship between materials and objectives of adult literacy programs, indicate the general availability of materials, describe the use of material and measuring instruments, and briefly list the types of material found and specific materials used for instruction in initial reading, expansion of reading ability, broad development in reading, and the teaching of handwriting and penmanship. The summary section will pull together implications, suggestions, and questions which seem relevant in considering materials and measuring instruments in adult literacy programs.

OBJECTIVES AND MATERIALS

In any instructional program it is highly desirable that there be a set of goals or objectives, which determine the direction the program is to take, and the specific materials and teaching procedures to be utilized to modify student behavior. Such a set of objectives usually has ultimate and immediate qualities about it. The members of the visiting team encountered only a few formalized statements of objectives. Some hidden or implied objectives were defined that were inferred from observation and conversation. The ultimate objective of literacy training programs is, of course, to teach adults to read and to write. Objectives in respect to learning to read and write were present but usually only through the teacher's training and experience. In the absence of specific objectives, it would be extremely difficult to examine a piece of material or materials and determine content validity or to assess adequately the effectiveness of materials by field testing with groups of adult students in controlled situations.

In the programs observed, it was often felt that the available materials, in large measure, gave the direction to the program, rather than the direction being supplied by carefully formulated objectives. In instructional programs, objectives are ordinarily stated first, hopefully in operational terms, and then materials and teaching techniques developed to fulfill the objectives. The materials, in essence, become the vehicles for attack, and the only valid reason for selecting and/or retaining particular materials is simply because they have been found to be effective in achieving specified objectives. Many of the programs observed were, in fact, teaching adults to read and write. It is well known that students can be taught to read, using a variety of combinations of materials and methods. However, in the absence of stated objectives which would lead to measures to judge the effectiveness of instruction, the answer to the question regarding the effectiveness of various types of materials has to remain, at best, a vague one.

A close relationship was observed between the teacher's conception of the objectives of the program and his use of materials for instruction. If the objectives were viewed as merely teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic without consideration of the needs of the adult learning the skills, materials were selected and utilized toward this end only. If the teacher was guided by the second set of objectives (previously described), based on his recognition of the "significant difference" between adult literates and the adult illiterate, there was concern regarding the availability of good material, relevance of materials to adult needs, and the ultimate goals towards which material was directed. Very often, even in the absence of adequate materials, the "good" teacher could get the job done.

It would certainly appear that a better definition of objectives, which consider the teaching of the skills in literacy and the "significant difference" between the adult literate and the adult illiterate, would aid greatly in the selection and use of materials, comparisons of instructional programs, and evaluation of materials.

AVAILABILITY OF MATERIALS

The degree to which administrators and teachers were aware of available materials and sources from which materials could be obtained varied considerably from program to program and between the various segments of a program. Some classes were operating almost exclusively with material from the regular elementary and secondary school program, while others were using a variety of materials including those produced specifically with the adult illiterate in mind. A question can be raised here: Why do some program directors seem to be more aware of existing materials than others? If some directors are not aware of existing materials and sources for obtaining such materials, what can be done to make such information available where it is needed? In addition, why should such variability exist regarding the availability of materials within units of a particular program? Does this indicate a need for better coordination and communication among the various elements of a program?

In addition to finding out whether or not programs were aware of existing materials, the team also attempted to get some idea as to whether or not administrators and teachers felt there was a need for better instructional materials written specifically with the adult illiterate in mind. The question was asked, "Do you feel there is a great need for new materials written specifically for adult illiterates?" Of course, responses to this question are closely related to whether or not administrators and teachers were aware of available materials. If they were aware of materials, their responses indicated that new instructional materials were not the major problem facing them in conducting literacy programs. Even so, there were indications that greater quantities of such material would be very useful. If there was strong reaction to the question, such as "Materials for teaching adults are just not available," it was felt that this was perhaps a direct indication that the individual had a scanty knowledge of available materials. A great quantity of material is available to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic to adult illiterates. Granted, there needs to be improvement in such materials; nevertheless, the administrator faced with the problem of beginning a program can find materials to get the job done.

A more subtle inference was made on the basis of questions that attempted to determine whether there was great need for materials better suited to the adult illiterate. This inference was closely related to the important element of objectives underlying literacy training. If the objectives were narrowly conceived in terms of skill inculcation only, then a need for better materials was not strongly voiced. However, if the person responding indicated a strong concern for the broader problems of literacy training, there was expressed a parallel desire for materials written more specifically with the problems of the adult illiterate in mind as well as the teaching of the basic skills of reading and writing. For example, in one program observed, the instructor was utilizing material from newspapers, catalogues, and material encountered in the daily employment environment of the illiterate to bridge the gap between teaching basic skills and teaching them in a context of immediate relevance to the illiterate.

GENERAL USE OF MATERIALS

Programs were observed in which materials of all types were being used with students organized into groups ranging in size from a small number to conventional size classes of thirty to thirty-five students. In some instances intra-class grouping was being done with classes sub-divided according to the level of literacy development. A common practice, in areas with sufficient numbers of students enrolled, was to organize adults into fairly homogeneous class groups based on the level of reading development. However, in smaller programs, a single teacher very often worked with a group in which the reading development varied from primary to high school ability.

In one state, programs were observed in which the unit of instruction was the single student working virtually alone with self-directing and self-correcting programed materials. However, in this particular program, about seven hours of instruction with a tutor preceded work on a completely individual basis. The student was totally illiterate prior to the seven hours of tutorial instruction. A programed reading kit was used to build a basic sight vocabulary in the first seven hours of instruction. During this period the student worked with a tutor. Then, the student was provided with self-directing, self-correcting material on which he worked independently, for the most part. This material would allow him, supposedly, to proceed to a level of ability comparable to completion of an elementary school program in reading.

A question is raised at this point regarding the place of programed material in literacy programs. In light of previous discussion of the needs of the adult illiterate and the crucial role played by the teacher in the instruction of illiterates, it would seem undesirable to divorce the teacher completely from the learning process. Programed materials undoubtedly have value in literacy programs. However, in view of the nature of the learner involved and his need for initial and continuing support, it is questionable as to whether a total approach utilizing exclusively programed materials is desirable. It seems apparent that the instructional materials of any literacy program will not, in and by themselves, solve the problem; they must be part of a total teaching strategy. An important question to be answered in adult programs of literacy training revolves around determining the relative effectiveness of instruction, utilizing different materials, and providing varying amounts of student self-direction and teacher-direction to the adult learner.

Materials for the most part were available for use within the classroom, while a small number of programs made materials available for homework outside the classroom. The degree of work done at home or expected outside of class varied, depending on whether or not the majority of the students were employed at full-time jobs.

In some instances material was ordered in large quantities for a number of separate programs through a central administration, and all centers offering classes were equipped with similar materials. Thus, difficulty was encountered in using materials because their purchase and distribution had not been done with the varying needs of specific programs in mind.

MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

A wide variety of tests, inventories and informal procedures were being used for beginning placement of students, determining achievement, and evaluating the results of training programs.

1. Placement

A variety of techniques were used for initial placement of students in literacy programs. One method mentioned earlier was the use of formal standardized achievement test. Some of those observed were the Stanford Achievement Tests-Reading, the *Metropolitan Achievement Tests*, and the Gates Basic Reading Survey Tests. Placement tests for self-directing, self-correcting kits were also being used. For example, the SRA Reading Laboratory kits contain a series of graded selections with comprehension questions. The selections are corrected and the score provides a starting level for placing students in the instructional material at the proper reading level.

One concept which seldom revealed itself in terms of placement of adult illiterates was that of expectancy, which can be defined roughly as a comparison between what a student can be expected to do in terms of his measured ability and his actual level of achievement. This concept is of importance in placement since it serves, in part, as a predictor of performance and, thus, aids greatly in grouping students for instruction. However, few programs had intelligence scores, either of a group or individual nature, available on students participating in programs. Individual intelligence tests such as the Stanford-Binet or the WAIS were not observed. Also, few programs attempted to use intelligence tests such as the Raven's Progressive Matrices, Peabody Picture Vocabulary Scale or the Arthur Point Performance Scale for a nonverbal assessment of ability. Some group intelligence tests such as the Army GED Tests, the Lorge-Thorndike Tests, the Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Tests and the Revised Beta Examination were being used. In some programs special tests are being developed for use with predominantly illiterate populations for an estimate of mental ability.

In light of the problems involved in adequately assessing the ability level of the adult, who is handicapped on a group intelligence test by lack of reading ability, and in most instances where resources to administer individual intelligence scales are not available, it may be most expedient for instructional purposes to place students in groups on the basis of their measured reading ability and form subgroups on the basis of the speed with which they are progressing through the instructional program.

In some instances, informal inventories were used to determin reading level prior to placement. In general, this inventory would consist of the following procedures:

1) Listening to student read from paragraphs graded from one to eight to identify errors in pronunciation and work recognition techniques.
2) Asking student questions in order to estimate his ability to comprehend the material read.

Such inventories normally yield two scores, one suggests the student's instructional needs and the other indicates the level of material he can deal with independently. Two standardized informal inventories, the Gilmore Oral Reading Test and Gray's Oral Reading Test, were being used.

Almost without exception, the tests used had norms based on elementary and secondary school populations. Although some reading tests are available with norms for adult literate populations, such as the Diagnostic Reading Tests and the Nelson-Denny Reading Tests, these were not being used. Such tests, normed on adult literate populations, would be much too difficult for the illiterate. Also, such tests usually yield single scores on variables such as speed, vocabulary, and comprehension. A low score indicates only general reading level, and it is difficult to determine with any degree of accuracy the instructional needs of the student. Tests designed to measure the mastery of basic skills being taught in elementary school programs were being used to assess the achievement level of the adult illiterate. Although the skill level was appropriate, the achievement of the adult illiterate was being compared to that of an elementary school population. This situation, plus the lack of adequate measuring instruments, poses a number of questions. Is it feasible to use tests measuring beginning reading skills, but normed on elementary populations, for adult illiterates? What are the positive and negative results of such a procedure? Would it be better to devise special tests, normed on a wide sample of the adult population, for use in placing adult illiterates?

2. Achievement

Two methods were being used to measure the achievement of students in literacy classes: standardized tests and tests made up by the instructional staff of a program. Standardized tests were used most often. The most common goal of instruction in programs was training students to pass an "eighth-grade equivalency" examination. Achieving this level enabled the student to begin work toward a high school diploma, begin training in a vocational course, or to participate in MDTA activities of various types. In one program, achievement tests based on questions from the content of the courses were constructed by the staff. Pass or fail for eighth-grade equivalency was determined by a standard percentage of correct responses, arbitrarily established by the staff.

In some of the programs observed there was a reluctance to use standardized tests for determining the reading level of students. In many instances where tests were used, they were administered without time limits in an attempt to assess more fairly the true achievement of the student. In some programs, students were placed at a starting level, determined almost totally on subjective judgment. Formal testing was delayed until later when the student had been exposed to the program and felt more comfortable in the instructional situation. The reason for the reluctance to use standardized tests initially with illiterates was based on the assumption that such testing created extreme anxiety on the part of the student. Teachers and administrators often stated that a standardized test used at the beginning of a program would "scare students away." One administrator flatly stated that he refused to use a diagnostic test in the program. Such initial anxiety on the part of the student is perhaps related to the factors underlying the "significant difference" between adult literates and adult illiterates discussed previously. Three questions seem worthy of consideration in this respect. First, what is the actual level of student anxiety, and what effect does it have on initial test results in literacy programs? Second, if the anxiety level is detrimental to adequate assessment, what can be done to provide the placement data necessary without creating abnormal anxiety? Third, in constructing tests for adult illiterates, how can they best be structured to alleviate test-taking anxiety on the part of the student?

3. Evaluation of Programs

One of the major functions of tests is to aid in the total evaluation of a program being offered. The carefully formulated objectives of a program underlie the selection and use of measuring instruments for evaluation. In the absence of objectives, carefully stated in measurable terms, it is difficult to evaluate adequately a program in the usual meaning of the term. In most of the programs observed, systematic evaluation was not being carried out. However, some general evaluative procedures or guidelines were being used. One criterion of the success of a program used in a number of instances was the percentage of students who achieved the particular grade equivalency standard operating in the program. In other cases, the holding power of the porgram, in terms of average daily attendance, seemed to be operating as an indication of the success of the program. Attendance varied considerably among programs. In some cases absences were rare while in other instances it was a struggle to maintain an average daily attendance of 30 per cent or better. Two important variables in maintaining good attendance were observed. The relevance of the program offered in meeting the needs of the illiterate was one variable. This was closely tied up with the degree to which the program took into consideration the "significant difference" between the needs of the regular adult education student and the needs of the adult illiterate. Another variable related to good attendance was the teacher involved in the program. Again, those teachers who attempted to meet the instructional needs of the students, while recognizing the importance of considering the "significant difference," were meeting with the most success in instruction. Two questions arise in considering the improvement of the evaluation of literacy training programs. First, "What are the characteristics of the 'adequate' program in literacy training?" Second, "What techniques can be used to determine whether or not the objectives of the 'adequate' program are being met?"

TYPES OF MATERIALS

This description of materials encountered during visits to various adult literacy programs is by no means an exhaustive cataloging of all the materials available or being used in instruction in all adult literacy programs. The purpose of this section is to generally describe the types of materials, give examples of the materials being used, and to raise questions regarding instructional material for adult illiterates. At first the specification of instructional objectives may appear to be a relatively simple task. However, when it becomes necessary to list specific behaviorial objectives, which can be used to guide instruction and for the production of materials, the task becomes increasingly more complex. Again, as emphasized previously, without well-stated objectives it becomes difficult to make meaningful statements about the effectiveness of materials. No yardsticks are available for judging usefulness without objectives. Also, it would be unrealistic to attempt to make a precise evaluation of the effectiveness of materials used in a particular program on the basis of a short visit of a few hours. Nevertheless, in observing classes, talking with teachers and administrators, and examining shelved materials, impressions, although admittedly subjective in nature, were formed in terms of the effectiveness of various materials. Materials were being used in varying degrees for introduction of literacy skills, reinforcement, extension, and expansion of skills, the development of interest and motivation on the part of the student, and, to a very limited degree, giving direction to teachers in providing instruction.

The broad array of materials encountered could be roughly classified into the following types which were either available or in use:

1. Hardcover and paper back texts
2. Materials from agencies, municipalities, state and federal governments, school districts, and the armed services
3. Conventional newspapers and those written with high interest, low difficulty
4. Dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other reference materials
5. Magazines and catalogues
6. Self-pacing and self-correcting kits
7. Programed materials of a linear, branching, and combination linear-branching type
8. Mimeograph and ditto material, teacher produced and commercially available stencils
9. Pictorial materials, charts, cards, games
10. Material used with mechanical equipment (films, slides, kinescopes)
11. Tape recordings, phonograph records, etc.

To provide some structure for describing materials being used, reading instruction was divided into three levels.

Level 1, approximately grades one through three.

Level 2, approximately grades four through six.

Level 3, approximately grade seven and above.

The above levels could also be described as the period of "initial instruction," the period of "accelerated growth," and the period of "developing maturity." Although the three periods are broadly conceived and the grade level designations are somewhat arbitrary, they represent categories for classification rather than time units for instruction. Each period over laps the other, reviews previous skills, and introduces the skills of succeeding levels.

Initial Instruction

During this period the general instructional task would include teaching the adult illiterate the mechanics of reading, including directional skills, a basic sight vocabulary, word recognition skills and the basic elements of comprehension. This period could be relatively well-defined in terms of what it takes to learn to read. One aspect of illiteracy noted consistently by the observers was the high degree of verbal facility possessed by the adult illiterate. Oral expression and vocabulary in many instances were excellent, and a number of illiterates demonstrated a fantastic range of understanding of concepts. A cautious generalization is that most illiterates, among those observed, do possess concept and sound of words, and the instructional task centers around providing symbols in the literacy triad. In other words, the major instructional task in teaching adult illiterates is to aid them to make the correlation between their functional use of sound and concept and the printed symbols representing them. This, of course, is referred to as teaching them to read. In teaching children to read, instruction includes the development of listening and speaking skills as well as broadening the background of experience. In teaching the child, this well-advanced development of sound and concept is utilized as much as possible, and newer emphasis in teaching reading advocates its utilization to an even greater extent. In the case of the adult, the primacy of sound-concept is even greater and the adult illiterate has usually gained a functional speaking command of the language and brings a broad background of experience to reading instruction. The differences between children and adults, in terms of sound-concept and experience development, are fantastic by comparison. Considering even the adult with a high degree of cultural deprivation, the sound-concept and experience development must be considerably above that of the average youngster beginning the elementary school.

In light of the above discussion, two important questions seem relevant in terms of providing and using instructional materials for adult illiterates. First, "Exactly how well developed is the sound-concept facility of the adult and what role should this play in instruction?" The second question relates to the development of materials. "If the sound-concept facility is particularly well developed, would it not be important to capitalize more on it in designing materials for instructing adults?" Much of the material currently being used to teach adults at this level was designed for children on the assumption that the development of sound and concept was as crucial as the development of the ability to decode the symbols of printed language. Such material fills the instructional needs of the child but constitutes an inappropriate teaching strategy when used with adults unable to read.

Another aspect is of importance in developing materials for adult illiterates, particularly those used at the beginning level. Although the adult has considerable functional ability in speaking, there may also be deficiencies in the language used. This has been observed consistently in the case of the culturally deprived child. The language used, because of the poverty of experience, etc., seldom approximates that which is generally accepted in ordinary day-by-day communication among less disadvantaged groups. In planning instruction for the adult illiterate who has functional command of the language, but whose usage is at considerable variance with generally accepted speech, "What should be the standard of acceptable usage?". If a standard of acceptable usage can be agreed upon should this be introduced immediately in the instructional materials, or should the vernacular familiar to the illiterate be used initially with a gradual progression toward acceptable language? There may be considerable facilitation in learning, by beginning instruction using the vernacular of the illiterate and gradually supplanting it as instruction proceeds. However, to what extent is it desirable to force a culturally determined standard of usage on the illiterate? Would it not be better to merely teach him to be able to read and communicate in the vernacular of the cultural, socio-economic context of which he is a part? Standards or norms of usage differ in the cultural context in which the illiterate functions. These are by no means questions which have easy answers, yet they assume particular importance in developing materials and planning instruction.

A brief listing of examples of material being used for initial instruction in reading follow:

1) Scott Foresman, John C. Winston, and Ginn and Co.--regular basal readers from the elementary schools, including supplementary material such as the teacher's manual and workbooks.

2) TMI-Grolier Self-Tutoring Course, Reading--A Programed Primer--example of programed material.

3) Phonovisual Methods by Schoolfield and Timberlake--parallel phonics-oriented material utilizing pictorial charts giving training in auditory and visual discrimination.

4) SRA Reading Laboratories 1a, 1b, and 1c--self-directive, self-corrective materials.

5) Arthur C. Croft, Home and Family Life Series, commonly known as the "Brown Family Series".

6) Steck Publishing Co., I Want to Read and Write and Veteran's Reader.

7) Chicago Board of Education, Basic English--sight vocabulary, word recognition, oral reading and speech improvement .

8) Noble and Noble, How We Live, Your Family and Your Job, and From Words to Stories--material basically for non-English speaking foreigners learning English but observed in use in adult literacy classes.

9) Streamlined English by Frank C. Laubach--learning material and charts including consonants, short and long vowels, supplementary material, as well as handwriting (roughly grades one through four).

10) NAPSAE, Operation Alphabet, Home Study Course--basic reading and writing with or without TV presentation.

11) Teacher-made materials; for example, a ditto sheet teaching basic sounds of English.

12) Continental Press Inc.--one commercial source for ditto stencils, available for supplementary practice in reading.

13) The Day Family--Federal textbooks on citizenship.

14) A Home Study Course in English and Government for Candidates for Naturalization, I and II--Federal citizenship text.

15) i/t/a material from Initial Teaching Alphabet Publications.

16) Learning Materials, Inc.--Words in Color .

17) Webster Division, McGraw Hill Book Co.--Programed Reading.

The materials listed are described in detail in the bibliography of published materials.

Accelerated Growth in Reading

By this time adults are approaching functional literacy. They may be able to read simple materials and may have mastered most of the mechanics of reading. A major goal at this level is not just to maintain these skills, but it is the expansion and application of reading skill. Reading moves away from the somewhat narrowly defined, skill-oriented materials of the initial level to materials which emphasize wide application and use of reading. One of the difficulties most commonly identified by the teachers with whom the team visited was that of obtaining reading material for students at this level. Most of these teachers pointed to the fact that the majority of the reading material available for these students, while mechanically written at the students' level, was not written with a sufficient degree of sophistication to hold their interest. From this, the team believes that it is vital that such materials be geared to the interests and cultural experiences of the group receiving instruction, or reading becomes purposeless and will not stimulate the development of higher level skills.

Following is a general list of materials being used for instruction at this level:

1) Basal readers such as those already described

2) SRA Reading Laboratory, Elementary Edition--self-directive self-corrective materials

3) Steck Publishing Co., New Journeys in Reading, I Want to Read Better, New Avenues in Reading, I Want to Learn English, Reading and Writing

4) Reader's Digest, Reading Skill Builders, Parts I and II (Grade 4), Parts I and II (Grade 5)

5) Holt, Rinehart and Winston, English--elementary level

6) California Test Bureau, Sentence Patterns, Verbs, Number and Case, Capitalization, and Punctuation--programed materials

7) Arthur Croft, The Browns and Their Neighbors

8) Regents Publishing Co., English Speaking

9) Frank Richards Publishing Co., I Want A Job

10) Teacher constructed material, catalogues and magazines

11) Syracuse University, News For You--newspaper written especially for adult literacy classes

12) Regular newspapers

13) Teachers College, Columbia University--Standard Test Lessons in Reading, Books A, B, C and Practice Exercises in Reading, IV-A B, C, D and V-A, B, C, D

Developing Maturity in Reading

At this level the adult is more likely to use reading materials in his job and leisure time activities. A great many adults do not progress beyond this stage. They can "get by" and do not feel the necessity for broadening and expanding reading as a vocational and recreational interest. The major emphasis at this level is developmental reading, which in essence, refines and extends skills learned previously. At this point the materials used in regular secondary and vocational school programs are applicable. Independent reading becomes important to a greater degree, implying the need for the availability of a wide range of supplementary reading materials. Reading often becomes occupationally oriented, and many adults at this level are preparing for or participating in high school classes such as history, mathematics, English, and science. Study skills such as organizing what is read, preparing reports, using reference tools, outlining and summarizing, vocabulary development, and higher level comprehension skills become increasingly important. Few observed programs were operating at this level.

Some materials available are as follows:

1) Regular tests from English, history, mathematics, and science from the secondary program, as well as some special texts in the above areas written for adult education classes

2) Reader's Digest, Advanced Reading Skill Builders, Books I and II

3) SRA Better Reading, Book I

4) EDL Controlled Reader--filmstrips for junior and senior high

5) Rochester Occupational Reading Series--develops skill in mathematics, language, spelling and reading (three separate reading levels in five occupational areas)

6) Teachers College, Columbia University--Study Type Reading Exercises

7) SRA, Develop Your Vocabulary, How to Study, How to Become a Better Reader, SRA Reading Books, I, II and III

In addition to language arts materials, handwriting and arithmetic materials were available for literacy classes. Following are some of the materials used for these areas:

1) Arithmetic and handwriting materials from the regular elementary program, including textbooks, workbooks, and practice exercises

2) Steck Publishing Co., Working with Numbers, Books 4, 5, 6, High School Refresher Course in Arithmetic

3) NAPSAE, Operation Alphabet--home study course

4) Streamlined English by Frank C. Laubach

5) Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Arithmetic

6) California Test Bureau, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division--programed materials

7) Arthur Croft, Workbook in Arithmetic, Language Workbook

8) Southern Publishing Co., Applied Penmanship

9) Noble and Noble, Write Your Own Letters

Many administrators and teachers commented that at the initial instructional level adults would learn, almost irrespective of the type of material used or its relevance to their needs, because their motivation is apparently very strong. However, at the level of accelerated growth in reading ability, it becomes crucial to provide materials adapted to the needs of the adult to hold them in the programs. As indicated in other reports on literacy training, there is a lack of good material at all levels, but a particular lack of material adapted for adults at the advanced instruction level. Also, although instructional material of varying quality can be found, there is a need for more supplementary materials to expand and reinforce the skills presented in the basic reading material used. Few materials were found that gave the teacher adequate guidance in teaching adult illiterates. Some materials do have accompanying teacher directions. However, suggestions merely outline mechanical procedures and do not focus on adjusting instruction to the needs of adults. A number of programs provided a syllabus for teachers of literacy classes with some emphasis on teaching techniques. Providing teachers with adequate guidance material for teaching adult illiterates is certainly an area open for improvement.

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CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings reported in Part I of this report are based on data collected by a visitation team composed of one of the co-investigators and three consultants. This team visited 35 programs in 15 states in a period of approximately 20 working days. The data were collected through interviews with students, teachers, administrators and supervisors; through observing classes in session; and through study of printed materials furnished to the team members by administrators and teachers of each of the programs.

The objectives of the site visits were basically as follows: (1) to identify the objectives of the various programs; (2) to identify the reasons why the students were participating in adult literacy programs; (3) to identify the problems or barriers which these students had to solve or overcome before they enrolled in a program; (4) to identify any criteria that could be used to describe a "successful" teacher in adult literacy programs; (5) to identify successful and unsuccessful teaching methods and techniques; (6) to attempt to identify any differences in the learning processes between adult illiterates and adult literates or children and youth; (7) to identify instructional materials being used; (8) to identify procedures and instruments being used in placement and measurement of achievement.

No attempt was made to develop a check list or score sheet to be used by the visitation team members during site visits. The investigators felt that the use of such a check list at the inception of this visitation program in a field where very little knowledge was available would introduce the personal biases of the investigators and, as a result, tend to color or slant the results. However, each member of the team was made fully aware of the objectives of the visitation program before the first site visit. As a result of the site visits, the invesitgators now feel that it is possible to develop such a check list to greatly facilitate the site visitation process. If this study were to be replicated, it would be recommended that such a check list be developed on the basis of the experience gained from the site visits.

Program Objectives

It is generally recognized that to carry on any educational program it is necessary first to establish a set of objectives. These objectives, ideally, should be stated in measurable behavioral terms. They should be specific and reasonably short-term. At the same time, it is expected that any educational program will also have a set of more broadly stated long-range objectives or goals as a framework within which the short-term behaviorally stated objectives will fit.

In only two of the 35 programs visited were the observers able to find a set of specific written objectives that were available to guide the classroom teachers and to aid in designing special classroom materials. In one state the team members found a lengthy list of objectives that had been prepared by the state department of education. In programs observed in this state, the team members did conclude that the majority of the teachers were at least using these objectives as guidelines; however, the majority of these teachers had not themselves formulated objectives with the help of their staff and students. In a second state a list of written objectives was offered upon request, but they were extremely general and contained no suggestions as to how such generalities might be applied in the classroom.

It is believed that the absence of concisely stated short-range objectives may be due to the relative newness of the programs, to the special emphasis being placed upon the development of literacy skills by adults, to the general lack of understanding of adult illiterates by teachers and administrators, to teacher load, and to teacher time factor. Another possible cause is the fact that very few teachers and administrators have been trained in the art of writing and stating short-range objectives in behavioral terms.

In looking at the objectives of the students involved in the adult literacy classes, the team felt that it was imperative that teachers and administrators and others involved in preparing statements of objectives must take into account the gap in an otherwise normal development of basic skills which occurs in all adult illiterates. Such a gap is identifiable by the illiterate's inability to cope with written materials. It should also be pointed out that not only are literate persons aware of this, but the illiterate adult is also aware of this deficiency in his cognitive development. It appears that not only is the adult illiterate aware of such a gap, but he has also attached to it a stigma similar to the "illiteracy stigma" maintained by literate persons within our society. As a result, the teacher and/or administrator who is responsible for formulating objectives for an adult literacy class must make every effort to establish at least a portion of the objectives that are compatible with the objectives or short-range goals that each member of the adult literacy class brings with him to the very first class session. The interviews with students enrolled in adult literacy classes pointed out quite emphatically the fact that each of the adults who enroll in such programs bring with him an extremely pressing and immediate short-term goal or objective. The apparent urgency of these student objectives, therefore, seems to make them much more positive in nature than are the objectives that one would normally expect to find among elementary or secondary school students. This adult student, with his urgent reason for wanting to learn to read and write, feels the urgency quite deeply, and therefore, it would seem reasonable that his objectives must be taken into consideration by the teachers and/or administrators who establish the program objectives in order that these urgent objectives are met.

Among the programs that the team classified as "more successful" it appeared that the persons working with classes in these programs were acknowledging and responding to the students' objectives and to the unalterable fact that the students were responsible adults possessing human dignity, even though they were different from literate adults. Too, these programs tended to emphasize the full range of student needs - not only what he should acquire in terms of skill development, but also a consideration of the best way that this mature human being could attain it, and at the same time, many of them were making some attempt to explain to these students the reasons why these skills were necessary, and why the methods that were being employed were felt to be the best methods available. It should also be pointed out that few, if any, of these programs were able to cope adequately with all the complex factors involved in the teaching-learning process in adult literacy programs. However, the majority of the "successful" programs were making sincere attempts to develop techniques that would integrate many of these intangible underlying factors that are believed to be involved in such a teaching-learning experience.

The observers found that the teachers who were having more apparent success with their classes were those who appeared to recognize the importance of the student's objectives. However, it soon became apparent that there were other, more subtle factors operating in the classrooms of such teachers. The observers believe that these factors, at least in part, were other objectives which also seemed to guide the teacher's activities. The team feels that these "hidden" objectives could be described as those objectives which are generated from the teacher's awareness and recognition of the differences between the illiterate and literate adults; the problems, attitudes and fears that the illiterate brings into the classroom; and the teacher's abilities and skills in relating these to the teaching-learning situation.

Briefly, the team feels that some of the more readily identifiable "hidden" objectives are those such as: "The teacher of adult illiterates should have a competency for:

1. Devising different ways to help the student change the self-concept he now holds.
2. Building in the student the concept that the acquisition of the ability to read and write is a slow process requiring much practice.
3. Devising ways so that immediate rewards can be experienced by the learner during this process.
4. Developing group interaction so that the problems encountered during the learning process and the situations that may account for the stigma attached to their deficiency can be discussed freely and openly.
5. Finding ways and means to help the illiterate overcome the shame or embarrassment he appears to experience by enrolling in the literacy program and attending the classes.
6. Developing other methods or materials that will tend to widen the illiterate's interests.

It appears that the successful teacher of adult illiterates must also be an individual who is capable of maintaining a great deal of flexibility within the classroom. This statement applies not only to teaching methods and techniques, but also to the types of instructional materials that are used. It was apparent to the observing team that no one teacher can successfully maintain a high level of student motivation if he relies entirely on a single type of material. Too, the teacher must have the ability and be willing to adapt materials to the individual student's needs and, if the need arises, devise material of his own.

The successful teacher of illiterate adults must also possess the ability to convince the student that developing a mastery of the basic skills is usually a slow, tedious process. The student must also be made aware of the fact that learning is possible through making mistakes and that it is "human" to make mistakes. Yet another competency which the teacher of adult illiterates should possess is the ability to convince the students of the value of education and to show them that there is a relationship between developing a mastery of the basic skills and their desire to get a job or get a better job.

The observation team also found that, among the teachers who were identified as being successful, there was a definite and deliberate attempt to show the students the reasons "why." "Why" certain materials were being used, "why" a specific method was employed, etc. In these same classrooms, the team noted that the majority of the teachers were attempting to help the students identify with other students in that classroom rather than maintain a close identification with the teacher. By doing this, the teachers were helping the students to gain more independence, as well as to help them learn through helping each other.

Persons Involved in Adult Literacy Programs

In view of the great diversity of the programs and students observed the team did not attempt to identify a "model student." However, it should be pointed out that the number of years of formal education reported by the students interviewed ranged from none through twelve. The education of those who reported from six to twelve years of formal schooling generally was represented by poor attendance and low achievement. The majority of the students observed, when tested with standardized reading tests, scored from zero to a fourth grade level of reading ability. In addition, the majority of the students observed were unemployed and receiving some type of welfare aid.

In attempting to identify the motives which caused the students to enroll in the adult literacy classes, the observers found that more students gave a self-improvement motive as the primary force for enrollment. While it was true that many of these persons also listed vocationally oriented motives, the team believes that the need for "self-improvement" provided the additional force necessary to get the person enrolled. Among the "self-improvement" forces listed by the students interviewed were those that the team categorized as follows: (1) parent image, (2) helping children, (3) social status, (4) "operation bootstrap", (5) group interaction, (6) religion, and (7) social outlet. The "vocationally-oriented" motives were classified as (1) job-seeking and (2) job-improvement.

In view of the "stigma" that is attached to illiteracy by society and the illiterates themselves, and the number of rejections that the illiterate has suffered during his lifetime, the team attempted to identify and categorized the barriers which the illiterates must overcome in order to first, enroll in a basic skills class; and secondly, to learn after enrollment. The team categorized those barriers that were listed into four general areas: (1) economic, (2) family, (3) social, and (4) psychological. Another barrier the team identified which must be taken into account as far as both initial and continued enrollment are concerned, was the existence of defense mechanisms. While some of these are quite apparent, a far greater number are quite elaborate and very subtle. Among the more successful teachers observed, it was noted that they were attempting to use these mechanisms to stimulate student motivation, to help determine student's needs, to help develop individualized programs for their students, etc.

The majority of the teachers in the programs observed were recruited from among the teachers in the local public school system who had training and experience in teaching the basic skills at the elementary level. Some of the reasons given by administrators for preferring people with elementary school backgrounds were: (1) has the necessary competencies for teaching the basic skills; (2) is more accustomed to moving at a slower rate; and (3) is better acquainted with developmental materials. The majority of the other teachers came from: (1) secondary school classes, (2) retired teachers, (3) married women with excess leisure, and (4) full-time adult school teachers.

In response to the team's question of "Why are you teaching this class?", the answers could generally be fitted into five areas. These responses were: to earn extra money, to utilize leisure time, to augment retirement pension, to render service, and they enjoyed teaching adults. When these same people were asked what role they felt the teacher should assume, they usually gave one of the following answers: a director, a tutor, a bookkeeper, a counselor, or a model. Although the last role was seldom mentioned either by teachers or their administrators, the team noted that in many cases the teacher was actually serving as a model for the class. Generally, this occurred in terms of an example of the fact that persistent hard work was a means leading to achievement.

By the conclusion of the site visits, the team had determined that the one greatest need in adult literacy programs was the need for a sound, well-organized teacher training program. For the most part, the team found that the training provided for teachers in the voluntary programs was superior to that offered by programs within the framework of the public schools. The lack of teaching training programs in so many of the public school programs appeared to stem from the fact that many of the administrators felt that "a good elementary teacher can teach anyone," and the lack of adequate training staffs. Other reasons for lack of a training program that were given were: (1) lack of funds, (2) too high a rate of teacher turn-over, (3) part-time staff would not participate, (4) there was not enough known in the field to offer an adequate training program.

From the interviews with the teachers in the 35 programs, a summary of the remarks made by teachers pertaining to training shows the following specific training needs:

1. Psychological and sociological peculiarities of adult illiterates.
2. Adult learning principles as they pertain to adult illiterates.
3. Psychology of the slow reader as applied to adult illiterates.
4. Group dynamics in the adult basic education classroom.
5. Human relations.
6. Identifying needs and immediate goals of the individual student.
7. Establishing attainable, measurable objectives.
8. Formulation of objectives around the individual's needs and goals.
9. Program evaluation.
10. Selection and evaluation of instructional materials.
11. Developing supplemental materials to meet individual needs.
12. Testing and the place of testing in the program.

Three different types of administrative structures were observed within the programs visited. Basically these structures differed only in the degree of local autonomy, varying from an almost completely locally autonomous administration to a structure with some degree of local autonomy and a good deal of state control being exercised in the areas of curriculum, teacher certification and salary scale, and attendance and admission standards.

Administrative decisions generally made at the local level which seemed to the team to be most pertinent to the ultimate success or failure of the adult literacy programs, included (1) Public Relations and Promotion; (2) Student Placement Policy and Procedure; and (3) Staffing and Staff Training.

As far as promotion and public relations practices observed were concerned, the team found that the amount and types of approaches and media used varied to a great deal from program to program. In visiting the 35 programs, the team was able to note the use of all conceivable types and combinations of types of media and approaches. For instance, one program utilized the Operation Alphabet television series as a means of publicizing their local adult literacy program. On the other hand, some of the programs observed relied heavily upon personal contact through the local cooperating agencies such as Welfare, Agricultural Extension, PTA, etc. All programs observed made use of "word-of-mouth" promotion and the distribution of attractive, well-designed brochures and leaflets.

Despite the media or approach(es) used in promoting and publicizing the local literacy programs, the observation team felt that the staffs in several of the programs were failing to take into consideration the psychological and sociological barriers which the prospective student must overcome before he can be recruited into such a program. Another shortcoming of the promotion and publicity aspects of the adult literacy programs that was observed to be occurring in a few of the programs was the failure of the administration and staff to "sell" the local influentials on the value of such a program to the community, and the power structure of the low income society by involving these people in the planning phase of the total program. A third weakness that was observed in some of the programs was the complacency displayed by the administrator and his staff. This complacency was generally displayed in the form of comments about the promotion and public relations of the local program such as: "We're doing a good job right now. We are filling our classrooms, etc., etc." In such programs, never did the team hear any mention of concern over the fact that even though the classrooms available were full, only a small percent of the illiterates in the community were being reached.

A summary of the student placement practices observed by the team showed that six distinct patterns could be identified. The most commonly used, and in the opinion of the team, the most satisfactory placement practice involved the utilization of both objective and subjective judgments, based upon the scores obtained by the students on standardized tests and the result of a conference with both the guidance counselor and teachers. A second practice that closely paralleled the preceding practice involved the use of an "informal reading analysis" and interviews with a guidance counselor and the teaching staff. It was pointed out to the observation team that in the case of both of these practices, the major emphasis in placing the student was placed upon his attitude as identified in the interview sessions. In many cases, even though the objective measure might have showed that the student could be placed in a reasonably high level reading class, he was initially placed in a lower level class because he felt strongly that he was incapable of operating at such a high level. A placement practice prevalent in the West consisted of basing the placement entirely upon the judgment of a guidance counselor. The primary advantage of such a system was that it did not involve testing of any kind, and therefore reduced the "threat" to the prospective students.

Of the three remaining placement practices identified, one system placed the student on the results of an "informal reading analysis" administered by the teacher with little provision made for interviewing the student. In two programs observed, the students were placed solely on the resuts obtained from the administration of a battery of standardized tests that were "designed" to measure the level of ability in the literacy skills of reading, writing and arithmetic. Two apparent weaknesses of this system appeared to be that (1) the batteries were designed for use with children, and (2) no provision was made to take into consideration the student's fears and attitudes. The sixth system of placement observed involved placing the students on the basis of an informal interview with two or three teachers who taught in the literacy program. From the team's observation, this system seemed to be most ineffective of the six practices observed.

The team felt that one of the most apparent administrative weaknesses noted in the programs observed was the poor communications between the top administration and the staffs of the local centers. This conclusion was drawn from the great discrepancies noted between the version of the local adult literacy programs received from top administration and the version received from the staffs of the local centers. It appeared that the administrators were relying too much, for the most part, on administrative "directives" and not enough on total staff conferences.

Instruction-Learning

In the area of motivation as it affects learning, the team found that the majority of the teachers found that one of the greatest tasks confronting them was that of helping the student change his self-image and developing his self-confidence. These teachers seemed to feel that the reasons for the illiterates' enrolling in the classes, in addition to those previously noted, included a need for recognition, a need for identity, and the availability of new economic opportunities. Some of the students came simply because they were brought to class and some were there at the insistence of their ministers and/or local community leaders.

Once the illiterate was enrolled in a class, the majority of the teachers stated that their prime concern was strengthening the students' motivations to prevent dropouts. Among the motives for staying that were identified through the teacher interviews were: (1) academic progress; (2) social relationships; (3) teacher interest in individual students; (4) friends in the class; (5) involvement of students in setting work expectations; (6) bringing reading and other problems to class; (7) encouragement from the group, etc.

Turning the process of assimilation (the learning of new content and skills), the team did report a case study based on the observation of a class under the direction of one of the more successful teachers observed. This case study was presented to illustrate some of the procedures and techniques used in the adult literacy classrooms observed.

After observing several classes, the team was able to identify certain basic assumptions which kept reappearing and upon which much of the instruction dealing with the assimilation of skills seemed to be based. These assumptions were identified as having been accepted, knowingly or not, by many of the teachers observed. It should not be concluded that all observed instruction was based on these assumptions, however, they were so much in evidence that the team felt they should be enumerated. These assumptions were:

1. Initial symbol learning is primarily achieved through imitation.
2. Reading is basically a mechanical process of habit formation.
3. Habit formations are established by repetition and reward.
4. Habit formation must proceed step by step.
5. Proceeding step by step enables the wrong responses to be identified and corrected.

6. Initial reading skills are learned most effectively when the three approaches of silent, oral,and written work are used in conjunction as reinforcers.

7. The knowledge of the meaning of the word follows the ability to recognize the word.

8. Skills in word recognition lead to independent reading.

9. An orderly progression of reading habits exists.

10. Reading habits may be identified as general phenomena.

11. Following 8 and 9 above, all students can learn to read by proceeding systematically along the step progression of reading habits.

12. Lack of independence in reading skills necessitates immediate direction and supervision of the students' educative experiences.

While there are conflicting points of view as to how transfer of learning occurs, it was evident from the teacher interviews that, although many of them were aware of the importance of transfer, none possessed a real good working knowledge of the process. Some of these teachers appeared to be working consistently on this problem, however, most teachers did not seem to be working at the problem as an integral objective in all learning situations. One of the most severe criticisms that the observation team would make of the type of transfer of learning that was seen would be the lack of emphasis upon the process itself. For example, in teaching the basic rules found in phonetics, these rules were usually presented very mechanically with more emphasis being placed on the content than on the process. It appears to the team that one possibility for speeding up the process of mastering the basic skills by illiterates would involve the use of more generalizations rather than the use of a more mechanical approach, such as was described above.

Many of the teachers interviewed emphasized the fact that there was a great need for a lot of repetition, especially in the initial learning stages. The team felt that one of the possible causes of this need was perhaps due to the procedures used in developing transfer of learning. This possibility was not listed by the teachers interviewed. Causes listed by the teachers included: (1) adjustment to the "new" role of student; (2) adjustment to a new self-image; (3) new relationships with people; and (4) a very short "attention span."

Turning to the use of programed material in relation to the learning process, the team felt that during the initial stages of the adult literacy program there is little use that can be made of such materials. It was noted that students at this stage seem to be quite dependent upon "human reinforcement." Too, since much of the feedback is in written form, the person with little or no ability to read can make little, if any, use of it. After the students have mastered the basic skills, especially reading, and if he is adequately motivated to continue learning, programmed material can be an extremely valuable tool.

Materials and Measuring Instruments

Turning to the matter of instructional material and measuring instruments, the team was aware of the fact that there was a great deal of material available. Granted, much of this material and most of the measuring instruments were those originally designed for use with elementary school pupils and have undergone minor revisions which it was hoped would slant them toward the adult who was just beginning to master the literacy skills. Even though this was true, the team found that in a majority of the programs visited the teachers and administrators (especially the teachers) were aware of the availability of only a small amount of these materials.

In general, in the programs observed, the team felt that the materials being used were giving the direction to the program and being used to establish whatever objectives happened to exist, rather than the direction being supplied by carefully formulated objectives. Along this same line, a close relationship was generally observed between the teachers concept of the program's objectives and his use of the instructional materials. Another more subtle inference was detected relative to the relationship between objectives and materials when the team inquired about the need for more materials better-suited for teaching the adult illiterate. In general, it appeared to the team that, if the objectives, as seen by the teachers were narrowly oriented in terms only of developing reading skill, there seemed to be little concern over such a need. If, on the other hand, the objectives were seen as being broader in nature and designed, not only to develop a skill, but also to "broaden the horizon" of the individual student, there seemed to be a rather great concern over the need for "more adult" materials.

Within the 35 programs visited, many types of instructional materials were observed being used in classes ranging from five or six to 30 or 35 students. In most of the smaller classes the teachers were attempting to instruct students whose ability in the literacy skills ranged as much as five or six grade levels. However, in the larger classes there was usually an attempt made to group the students into reasonably homogeneous subclasses according to their level of literacy skill development.

In one state, programs were observed where the individual students were being trained in literacy skills using self-directing, self-correcting programmed materials supplemented with occasional consultation from the local program director. While it appeared that the use of the programmed materials was effective when used by persons interested in further developing or expanding their literacy skills, nowhere did the team see evidence that such materials, as they were being used, would be effective in teaching the total illiterate.

A number of tests and inventories were observed being used in the adult literacy programs for such purposes as placement, measuring achievement, and for evaluating programs. In the placement process, tests that were being used included the Stanford Achievement Test, Metropolitan Achievement and/or Reading Readiness batteries, the Gates Basic Reading Test, Gates Reading

Survey Test, as well as tests from the self-directing, self-correcting programmed kits.

In none of the programs visited was any attempt being made to determine the level of the beginning student's intelligence through the use of such tests as the WAIS, Stanford-Binet, Arthur Point Performance Scale, Raven's Progressive Matrices Test, or the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. Along this same line, not once was the "expectancy" concept observed or discussed by staff or administrators in terms of placement. Granted, this concept was developed in working with elementary and secondary school children and may be inappropriate as far as adult illiterates are concerned, but the team feels that it should not be disregarded until it is, in fact, proven through sound research to be inapplicable to such populations.

Although there are tests available which have been normalized in terms of literate adult populations, it is generally conceded that these tests are usually too difficult for the adult illiterate population. However, rather than attempting to simplify or otherwise adapt such tests so that they can be used with the illiterates, all programs that were using standardized tests in their placement practices were using tests that had been normalized with elementary and secondary school populations.

Student achievement in the literacy classes observed, in general, was measured by either some type of standardized test battery, or by a test designed by the teaching and/or administrative staff. As in the placement process, the standardized tests used were those that had been normalized using elementary or secondary school populations. One of the criticisms that the team identified against basing achievement totally upon the percent of correct responses to a given test was that all too often it was noted that the teacher exhibited a marked tendency to teach toward or about the test rather than teaching to meet the students' needs.

Two criteria for evaluating the literacy programs observed that were generally identified by the staff were: (1) the percentage of students who achieved a given grade level in a given time interval; and, (2) the holding power of the program in terms of average daily attendance. Although evaluation based on these criteria can readily be criticized, the team did observe two variables that appeared to be conducive to high attendance rates which would appear to be valid evaluative criteria. These variables, closely related to consideration of the "significant difference" existing between literate and illiterate adult students can be identified as: (1) the relevance of the program in meeting the needs of the illiterate student; and (2) the teacher who attempted to meet the individual needs of each student in his (her) class.

No attempt was made to evaluate the materials that were observed being used in the programs visited, nor did the materials seen represent an exhaustive list of all literacy instructional materials that are available today. Materials that were observed were being used in varying degrees for (1) introduction of literacy skills; (2) reinforcement; (3) extension and expansion of the basic skills; (4) development of interest and motivation; and (5) to a limited degree, for giving directions to teachers. The broad array of materials encountered in the 35 programs visited were roughly categorized into the following types:

1. Hardcover and paper back texts;
2. Materials from agencies, municipalities, state and federal governments, school districts and the armed services;
3. Conventional newspapers and those written with high interest, low difficulty;
4. Dictionaries, encyclopedias and other reference materials;
5. Magazines and catalogs;
6. Self-pacing and self-correcting kits;
7. Programmed materials of a linear, branching and combination linear-branching type;
8. Mimeograph and ditto material, teacher produced and commercially available stencils;
9. Pictorial materials, charts, cards, games;
10. Material used with mechanical equipment (films, slides, kinescopes);
11. Tape recordings, phonograph records, etc.

Basically, the team felt that the above materials were being used at three different levels which could be described as

Level I - approximately grades one through three -
"Initial Instruction"

Level II - approximately grades four through six -
"Expansion of reading skills"

Level III - approximately grade seven and over -
"Broad development of reading skills"

Granted, the above levels were broadly conceived and the grade levels were arbitrarily assigned. However, it must be recognized that each level overlaps the next one, reviews previous skills, and introduces new skills at succeeding levels.

Although materials from a variety of publishing houses were found, it appeared that the most commonly noted materials were from Science Research Associates, the Laubach Foundation, and the Steck Publishing Company.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the information collected from visiting some 35 adult literacy programs in 15 states in the continental United States, the observation team members feel that they are justified to draw the following conclusions regarding such programs as they existed prior to the availability of funds from the Economic Opportunity Act, Title II B:

1. One of the greatest needs of the program, is the general establishment of a sound, well-designed program for training teachers. On the basis of these observations, it appears that the major emphasis of such training programs should be placed on understanding and learning how best to work with the adult illiterate.

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2. The teacher who appears to be most successful in terms of student progress and achievement possesses several desirable characteristics. Although some of these may vary from one teacher to another, the four which seem to be most essential are: (a) must genuinely accept the student as a human being who is capable of learning; (b) must be able to subjugate his middle class value system and attitudes in order to be able to effectively start the illiterate student where he is; (c) must be able to quickly identify each student's immediate, short-term goals that he brings to class and that, in turn, are responsible for getting him to come to class; and (d) must have the imagination, creativity, and flexibility to see to it that the above immediate goals are mastered as soon as possible in order that the teacher can show the student that "indeed he can learn".

3. Much more attention must be given to the formulating and writing of sound, measurable, attainable program objectives and to the development of an effective and orderly process of program evaluation.

4. As is true in all areas of education, there is no one "good" or ideal material or method. The materials and methods that should be used are those in which the teacher has confidence and which he is comfortable using. However, there are certain basic principles which have been identified in this report which apparently cannot be ignored.

5. While there is a need for good instructional material at all levels, material that has a high degree of adult interest, there is a relatively large number of books, workbooks, programmed material, etc., available that is satisfactory for use by well-trained teachers.

6. Regardless of the materials used by any teacher there is a great need for the teacher to be able to innovate and produce "teacher-made" material to help meet the needs of individual students.

7. There is a great need for the establishment of a sound, well-designed program for the field testing of instructional materials. Such a program should involve the establishment of a common design that could be used for field testing in regional field testing centers, rather than having several persons and/or agencies doing field testing each using their own different designs.

SUGGESTED RESEARCH

The information collected in this project has raised questions that identified areas in which a great deal of basic research is badly needed. Some of these questions are:

1. How important is it to the total learning process of the adult illiterate that his immediate, personal objective be met as soon as possible?

2. Is it possible to identify the "hidden objectives" that the observation team felt were possessed by less successful adult literacy teachers? How necessary to teacher success are these "hidden objectives?"

3. How important to the success of the learning process is it that the teacher make the adult illiterate aware of the "whys" of the learning process?

4. Is identification absolutely necessary for the adult illiterate to really learn? Should this identification be limited solely to teacher-student or should it also involve student-student identification?

5. How will integration of races within a classroom affect the identification process?

6. Do the majority of illiterates who enroll in basic skills classes do so because of vocational or self-improvement motivations.

7. What is the relationship between or among the four types of barriers listed? Do some of these barriers affect the learning process more than others?

8. Are there any qualities that a teacher of adult illiterates must possess that are different from those found in successful teachers in any other field of education? If so, what are they and are they qualities which can be developed?

9. Who constitutes the power structure of the adult illiterate society? Is it possible to identify these persons?

10. Two very distinct types of adult classrooms were identified. (These were described in Instructional-Learning section of the reports.) One was permissive, allowing for a good deal of relaxed interaction among class members and between the class and the teacher. The other was much more formal and "business-like" so far as classroom management was concerned. If many of the different interacting variables were equal, is there a significant difference in the drop-out rate between the two types of classrooms?

11. If feedback is a very essential ingredient in the instructional-learning aspect of classroom management, as evidence now would appear to

clearly show, what forms are more meaningful and helpful to the learning illiterate? How much, or how often should the different forms of feedback be provided? When is it most profitable to build in such forms of feedback?

12. "Friends" have been identified as stimulating motivation in literacy education. They have also been helpful in the learning tasks. Although this procedure appears to help, several questions are in order. Does unsupervised help result in learning which has to be unlearned later? Does this cause serious difficulties? Are there any interpersonal difficulties caused by these procedures?

13. Do classes which allow and even encourage the adult students to enter into the planning obtain greater gains in achievement; lesser drop-out rates; more commitment to learning?

14. The testing program is definitely tied to the instructional program. It may be argued that the former is subsumed in the latter. What is the place and function of the testing program in the instructional-learning situation?

15. Repetition as a learning procedure has been discussed under latent learning. However, this is such an integral part of the teaching procedure that it bears close examination. Why is there a need for so much repetition? Is it possible that other forms of instruction could eliminate much of this repetition? Could teaching principles in the transfer of learning decrease repetition?

16. Can programmed materials and self-directive, self-corrective materials, divorced completely from the influence of the trained teacher, form the sole instructional procedure for literacy classes? What are the optiminal combinations of varying amounts of teacher-direction and self-direction in such training programs?

17. What techniques, or combination of techniques, will provide the best initial placement of students in literacy programs? What role should expectancy play in placement? Should students be grouped by ability, and, if so, what technique should be used for determining ability? Is the concept of expectancy used in elementary and secondary school programs and based on a standardized measure of intellectual ability applicable, or would it be desirable to develop a new concept of expectancy based on measurable characteristics of the adult learner?

18. If the student's achievement is to be evaluated in terms of his personal objectives, what methods or techniques should be used to measure such achievement? Should achievement be judged strictly on the basis of standardized scores in content areas? What role should achievement tests, normed on adult literate populations, play in determining achievement?

19. A close relationship exists between the goals of a program and the stated means for evaluating the effectiveness of the program. What are the major characteristics of the "adequate" adult literacy program, and how can these be measured for systematic evaluation?

20. What is the actual level of student anxiety in testing for initial placement? What can be done to obtain placement data without adding to the anxiety of the student? In what way could tests and test-taking situations be structured to alleviate anxiety as much as possible? Do diagnostic batteries have a role in initial placement?

21. What steps can be taken to produce better materials for the initial instruction level, more adequate supplementary materials at all levels, and better-designed material to guide teachers in instructing adult illiterates?

PART II

EVALUATION OF PUBLISHED INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Staff Involved:

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EVALUATION OF PUBLISHED INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The objectives stated in the proposal for Cooperative Research Project No. OE-4-10-198 included three major tasks: an evaluation of published research in the area of adult literacy training; a report of site visits made to programs in operation around the country; and the production of an evaluative bibliography of available published materials applicable to adult basic education programs, including literacy training. This section of the report deals with the third task and is divided into two major parts. The first part includes a discussion of how the published materials were obtained, establishes the criteria for evaluation of the materials, describes the procedures followed in evaluating, and presents special comments about the final bibliography of materials. The second part is the actual evaluative bibliography and is organized into three levels: beginning, intermediate, and advanced. Each of the three levels, except for the advanced level, is divided again into basic and supplementary materials. The bibliography does not consider unpublished material, although a considerable amount of such material is being produced, by necessity, in various programs throughout the country. The majority of this material tends to be excellent in quality because it is usually produced on-the-spot by the teacher to meet specific instructional needs of students. Much of this material should eventually be located and produced by publishing companies for general distribution.

Securing Published Materials

A list of companies and agencies identified by Ward and Brice (5) as having published materials for use in adult basic education was compiled in order to secure instructional materials for evaluation. Each of the more than 200 listed publishers was contacted by a letter which included:

1. A statement of the general problem area of the research project.

2. A description of the population for which material was

2. A description of the population for which material was being requested including type, range of ages, educational background, etc.

3. A request that the publisher submit material for evaluation which was felt to be applicable in teaching basic education skills to adults and which was written to appeal to adults' interests and needs.

Two letters were sent to publishers. The first letter requested material that could be used in working with adult groups whose reading ability ranged from third to sixth grade. When the project was later extended to include the educational range of zero to eight, a second letter was sent requesting that the publisher broaden the original definition and include material for the wider educational range.

A vast amount of material was received in response to the two letters. However, a very high percentage of the material was inappropriate for use with the population described in the original letter. It became increasingly clear that either the publishers ignored the description of the population for which material was requested, or did not adequately understand the description as written. One conclusion appears warranted at this point. At the time the original letter was written, the majority of publishers responding did not possess a clear understanding of the group for which material was being requested. Many publishers in particular had difficulty in understanding the concept that adult students in need of basic education required material that was elementary in skill level but adjusted to their needs and interests in format and story content. This conclusion has been reinforced constantly through talking with publishers and individuals actively involved in the many adult basic education programs now beginning to spread across the country. It does seem logical that since the early months of this project, with the massive interest developing in "war on poverty" programs, publishers are becoming more alert to the problem and, through various means, learning more about the groups for which they have been, or will be, producing materials. Some of the latest materials off the press certainly indicate a greater awareness on the part of the publishers of the needs of the undereducated or or uneducated adult.

If all the material received from the publishers had been evaluated according to the criteria established for inclusion of such materials in basic education programs, approximately 75 per cent of it would have been judged inappropriate for use by adult groups. Therefore, the project director and the project reading consultant examined the material and selected for evaluation only those materials which might have some appeal to adult populations. The criteria for inclusion were deliberately broad to insure that materials applicable in certain circumstances and not in others were not omitted. In essence, the project staff had to assume the responsibility that the publishers sidestepped through intent, misunderstanding, lack of knowledge, or other reasons; and select for evaluation from the materials sent, those which could be useful for the specific population described.

Establishing Criteria for Evaluation of Materials

After collecting and sorting the materials, the next phase involved

evaluation--an admittedly difficult task. Evaluation implies that a yardstick

evaluation--an admittedly difficult task. Evaluation implies that a yardstick or measure exists against which something can be compared in order to form an opinion regarding its worth or usefulness. The difficulty stems from the fact that such yardsticks or measures are almost totally lacking for determining the effectiveness of materials for adult basic education. In establishing the criteria for evaluation, the problem can be stated as follows: Given the vast, heterogeneous reservoir of undereducated or uneducated adults which has been identified, what materials from those currently available will be most useful in meeting their need for improved educational and personal development? In presenting a bibliography of materials purporting to answer the above question, the project staff by no means feels the implied degree of omnipotence. The total group involved in such instruction is still being identified in terms of needs and characteristics, and the needs and characteristics of the various subgroups within the total group involved are by no means yet clear. Adequate teaching strategies, and materials to implement these strategies, are still a matter for conjecture and research. Nevertheless, the staff involved in evaluation formulated those qualities which they felt were necessary in materials for working with adults in basic education situations, on the basis of their own observation, judgment, experience and often common-sense. These measures were then applied to the materials available and the evaluative bibliography produced.

In selecting individuals to evaluate materials and in developing the final format for the bibliography, one consideration was paramount-- the bibliography had to have a high degree of validity in terms of its usefulness to those actually working with groups in adult basic education. Thus, consultants for the evaluation included individuals actually instructing basic education classes and directly involved with the problem of materials in the field. In addition, the bibliography has been cast in a format to maximize its use by "practitioners"--the administrators and teachers--actually in direct contact with instruction for basic education groups.

Four people were directly involved with the evaluation of materials; (a) the project co-director, (b) the reading consultant from the university level, who had also made site visits, and (c) two individuals from different programs, who were judged to be exceptionally capable in their teaching and were actually involved in conducting classes in adult basic education. For a particular piece of material it seemed desirable to answer the following questions:

1. What is the publisher's suggested use level?
2. At what level does a standardized readability formula place the material?
3. At what level of instruction would the material be most useful?
4. Should the material be classified in terms of use as basic or supplementary?
5. Does the format and content of the material have appeal for adults?
6. In which instructional areas, or combination of areas, could the material be used?
7. Is the material paperback or hardcover?
8. What special features, advantages or disadvantages does the material possess?

Readability level

If it was available, the publisher's recommended level of the material was given. For the majority of the materials, a standardized readability formula was computed to indicate the general difficulty level of the material. For each piece of material a sample was taken from the beginning, middle, and end of the test; a readability formula was computed for each sample; and the three samples were averaged to provide a general estimate of the difficulty level of the material. The Spache (1), (4) readability formula was used for primary level materials and the Dale-Chall (2), (3) for materials at the intermediate level and above.

Instructional levels

Three categories were established for classifying material as to usage level--beginning, intermediate, and advanced. These can also be defined as the period of *initial instruction* in reading, the period of *accelerated growth* in reading, and the period *developing maturity* in reading. In terms of skill content the periods are roughly equivalent to the primary, intermediate, and junior high school levels. However, the adult moves through these levels more rapidly than children in the regular school program, and they represent categories for classification rather than time units for instruction. Of course, the periods are not mutually exclusive, and an overlap in skill development exists at all levels.

The skills outlined are suggestive rather than prescriptive, for a valid sequential organization of language skill development has yet to be formulated and researched for adult basic education populations.

Level 1, *Initial Instruction* in Reading

During this period the general instructional task includes teaching the illiterate the mechanics of reading--including directional attack, visual and auditory discrimination, basic sight vocabulary, word analysis skills, and the beginning elements of comprehension. Some of the instructional tasks are as follows:

Comprehension - associating sound and meaning with the printed symbol, main idea, drawing conclusions; reading to recall information, simple sentences and paragraphs; reading for information; recognizing cause and effect; following directions

Word analysis - using pictures, context, configuration, and phonetic and structural analysis to unlock new words; rhyming; initial sounds, final sounds, likenesses and differences in words; two letter consonant digraphs, root words, inflected forms such as *s*, *ed*, *ing*, initial and final consonants, long and short vowels, silent letters, root words and compounds

Vocabulary - associating words and pictures, sight vocabulary, basic vocabulary of frequently used words

Location skills - alphabetizing in sequence, book parts, simple information aids, beginning use of dictionary

Organization - following sequence of directions; classifying words into categories; arranging words into sentences and sentences into sequence; summarizing; developing basic study skills

Some relevant applications of instruction include reading signs, simple streets and maps, application forms, want ads, shopping aids, clothing labels, store prices; applying for driver's license; beginning punctuation; letter writing; sentence and paragraph construction; and development of general language and speech.

Level 2, Accelerated Growth in Reading

At this level adults are approaching functional literacy which is roughly equivalent to the fourth or fifth-grade level and should have the skills of the previous level well in hand. However, the concepts and skills of the previous level may need continued review and reteaching and constitute part of instruction at this level. A major goal is the expansion and continued application of reading skills in use situations. Reading broadens considerably from the heavy skill emphasis of the previous level to an emphasis on wider application and use of purposeful reading.

Comprehension - comparing and contrasting indeas; selecting information to remember; reading to gain implied ideas, main ideas; drawing conclusions; developing skill to read increasingly more complex paragraphs and larger units of material

Word analysis - continuing use of context, phonetic and structural analysis, etc. to unlock words; increasing use of the dictionary as an aid in pronunciation; developing ability in syllabication; using inflectional forms, contractions, possessives, and compound words

Vocabulary - synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, prefixes, suffixes; accumulating vocabulary needed in adult world; enlarging occupational vocabulary

Location Skills - using references such as encyclopedias, maps and globes, charts, tables, and graphs

Organization - recalling events in order; preparing outlines from simple to more complex organization; summarizing a story; finding paragraph topics; reading to solve problems; basic study skills; developing flexibility in reading

Reading for enjoyment, becoming acquainted with literature, and developing reading in interest areas and occupational fields become important at this level.

Level 3, Developing Maturity in Reading

At this level the adult should be making increased use of reading in his job and leisure-time activities. A great many adults falter at this stage. They can "get by" with the skills they have and do not feel the need for broadening reading skill as a vocational tool or as a personal and leisure-time activity. The major emphasis at this stage is the development of what are loosely termed "higher level" reading abilities. The materials used in the regular secondary and vocational program have wide application.

Independent reading becomes more important, implying the need for a wider variety of materials and increased effectiveness in individual study. Reading often becomes occupationally oriented, and many adults at this level are preparing for, or participating in, high school classes such as history, mathematics, etc. The skills related to independent study and self-directed activities become increasingly important.

Comprehension - reading to solve problems, main ideas; finding information on increasingly more difficult topics; answering specific questions; reading at different rates for different purposes; developing speed and comprehension in vocational and leisure-time reading

Word analysis - reviewing previous levels; extending use of the dictionary, glossaries, etc.

Vocabulary - reviewing and continuing synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, prefixes, suffixes; extending reading vocabulary in general reading and vocational academic areas

Location skills - continuing to develop proficiency in use of references, sources of information for developing reports, etc.

Organization - taking notes; extending use of outlining; reading to follow complex directions; using visual aids to aid in understanding; organizing and summarizing materials; continuing development of composition, grammar, and usage, etc.

Basic and supplementary

Materials were classified as either useful for basic instruction or as supplementary material, following the generally accepted definitions of the two terms. Material was felt to be basic if it contained the following elements; controlled vocabulary and sentence and paragraph length; systematic approach to skill development; progression from easy to more difficult units; provision for practice exercises in vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, etc.; and repetition for reinforcement of skills. Few broadly based materials are available in the adult basic education area that have an extended system of skill development, adequate provision for practice, and review and reinforcement of skills.

Adult interest

It was felt essential to rate the material on the degree to which it was applicable to the interest and maturity level of adults to achieve maximum use by individuals in the field. Rating was made from consideration of the illustration, vernacular, content, and general format of the material. Material obviously appropriate only to children was eliminated. The remainder of the material was rated as satisfactory for adult interest or as having *some value* for adults in terms of interest.

Instructional use

Materials were classified as having value in teaching reading and other language skills, handwriting, arithmetic, and elements of personal and social adjustment including occupational orientation, hygiene, finance, civic and social responsibility, and other areas of immediate interest to adults. For ease in categorizing materials, the term reading includes those materials that also emphasize other language skills such as composition, grammar, etc.

Type of material

To aid teachers and administrators in the selection of materials for instruction, particularly in terms of cost, availability in hardcover or paperback form is indicated.

Comments

Special comments by the reviewers were included in the evaluation relative to instructional methodology used, specific content included, suggestions to teachers for use of the material, and special features of the material.

Evaluating the materials

A rating form was developed which incorporated the previously described areas for evaluation, to aid in the evaluation of materials. Evaluation proceeded in the following sequence:

1. The review panel--the four individuals previously described--met for a six-day evaluation period.

2. The panel discussed the criteria established for evaluation and made necessary changes and amendments. They were then introduced to the evaluation form. The technique to be used in evaluation was explained and sample evaluations made.

3. The material was shelved according to the publisher's recommended use level or the level where the reading consultant thought the material was most appropriate. Evaluation forms for the separate reviewers were included with each piece of material.

4. The reviewers evaluated each piece of material according to the categories on the evaluation form. Each reviewer worked independently during evaluation.

5. The evaluation forms were collated after evaluation and a composite rating was made from the results. In cases of wide disparity among the reviewers, the project director and the reading consultant formed an evaluation on the "middle ground" between the reviewers.

6. A rough bibliography of the evaluated material was then typed, edited, and a final bibliography produced.

7. In some instances material was received after the evaluation of the main body of the material. The project director and the reading consultant evaluated this material.

The reader will note in the bibliography of materials reviewed and appraised that certain materials were marked with an asterisk (*). This designation was used by the review panel to indicate that material which, in their opinions, would be most useful in the adult basic education classroom. The reader must bear in mind that this represents the opinions of a panel of four qualified persons and that in all probability another panel of four equally competent persons might select a somewhat different group of materials.

REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION MATERIALS

(Level I - Basic)

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*1. Smith, Harley A. and King, Ida Lee, I Want to Read and Write, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1950.		2.8	I	B	S	R H PA	P	emphasis on building sight vocabulary, includes some phonics and structural analysis in developing word attack skills, has practice lessons, review lessons, check tests, has some teaching suggestions
*2. Robertson, M.S., Adult Reader Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1964.		2.6	I	B	S	R H PA	P	has work-type exercises for vocabulary review and check tests, has few suggestions for the teacher, whole-word approach, would need to be supplemented with phonics, word analysis, etc.

KEY
L = Level (1,2,3)
B, S = Basic, Supplementary
A.I. = Adult Interest (Satisfactory, Some Value)
U. = Use (Reading, Handwriting, Personal Adjustment, Arithmetic)
T = Type (Paperback, Hardcover)

* Indicates material felt by reviewers to be particularly useful.

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. of P.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*3. Home and Family Life Series								
*Mitchell, Eva Cornelia and Murphy, Marion McCown, Language Workbook: A Workbook in Simple Language Arts, New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1950.	I	2.0	I	B	S	R H PA	P	manuscript and cursive writing, basic presentation, dictionary skills, capital letters.
*Griffin, Ella Washington, Three Instructional Tools For Teachers, New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1950.								
* ____________ Reading Placement, New London, Connecticut: Educator's Washington Dispatch, 1949.								
*Bright, Emma Lewis and Mitchell, Eva Cornelia, A Day With The Brown Family, New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1949.	I	1.2	I	B	S	R PA	P	series can be used as basic with supplementation, good illustrations, whole word approach, limited practice
*Mitchell, Eva Cornelia, Workbook in Learning to Read Better, New London, Connecticut, Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1950.	I	1.2	I	B	S	R PA	P	whole word approach, monotonous in method, limited practice
*Bright, Emma Lewis and Mitchell, Eva Cornelia, Making A Good Living, New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1949.		1.5	I	B	S	R PA	P	Illustrations satisfactory, whole word approach, limited practice

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*________, The Browns at School, New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1949.	2	2.0	1	B	S	R PA	P	whole word approach, illustrations satisfactory, limited practice
*________, The Browns and Their Neighbors, New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, 1949.	2	2.6	1	B	S	R PA	P	whole word approach, illustrations satisfactory, limited practice
*4. National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Operation Alphabet TV Home Study Book, Washington, D.C.: National Association of Public School Adult Educators, 1962.		2.5	1	B	S	R H PA	P	combines reading with writing practice, manuscript writing exclusively, well-illustrated, needs supplementary to replace TV content, sight vocabulary, practice exercises in word analysis and comprehension, can be used as basic with supplementation
*5. Henney, R. Lee, Systems for Success Book 1, Chicago, Illinois; Educational Opportunities Project, Follett Publishing Co., 1964			1 2	B	S	R A H	P	includes sections on reading, spelling, arithmetic and English, attempt at incorporating new words introduced into short stories, no illustrations, suggestions for teaching, "family" phonics approach
*6. Laubach, Frank C., Streamlined English, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1955.	1 & 2	2.5	1	B	S	R H	P	picture association technique, heavy emphasis on phonics

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
* __________, Charts and Stori..., Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1963.	1 & 2	2.5	I	B	S	R H	P	
* __________, Lesson Plans for Streamlined English, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Pres-, 1962	1 & 2	2.5	I	B	S	R H	P	
* __________, Teacher's Guide for Charts and Stories, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1963	1 & 2	2.5	I	B	S	R H	P	
* __________, Writing Book for Charts and Stories, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1964	1 & 2	2.5	I	B	S	R H	P	
*7. TMI-Groller, First Steps in Reading for Meaning, New York: Teaching Materials Corporation, A Division of Groller, Inc., 1963	1		I	B	SV	R	P	written for children, may have some adult application, actually pre-primer level, requires tutor in initial stages, phonics approach, basic words, needs to be integrated into ongoing program to be effective, cannot expect student to be totally independent; self pacing feature good

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*8. U. S. Armed Forces Institute Materials								
*Harding, Lowry W. and Burr, James B. Men In The Armed Forces, MB001, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1956	1-3	2.3	1	B	S	R PA H	P	excellent, comprehension checks, service oriented story content, sentence and whole word approach
*Study Cards for Use With MB 001, MB001.2 and MB001.3								
*__________, Reading Instruction in the Armed Forces: A Teaching Guide, MB001.42, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1956.								
*__________, Servicemen Learn to Read Practice Book Numbers I and II, MB001.2, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1956.	1-2	1.6	1	B	S	R H PA	P	variety of reading skill exercises, very useful, excellent material
*9. Smith, Edwin H. and Lutz, Florence Rader, My Country, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1956.		2.5	1	B	S	R H PA	P	workbook exercises, check tests, controlled vocabulary word attack skills, basic sight vocabulary, good variety in exercise material.
10. Members of the Staff, Handwriting Research Institute, Handwriting Made Easy, New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1959.			1	B	SV	H	P	written for children, may have some value as a teacher's guide for adults, section on cursive writing useful

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*11. TMI-Grolier, Spelling-Vol's 1,2, and 3, New York: Teaching Materials Corporation, A division of Grolier, Inc., 1962.			1 2	S	S	R	P	pre and post tests, could have excellent results as a basic text in some adult situations, self pacing good, requires fair level of reading ability
*12. New For You, Level AA, ed, Robert S. Laubach, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, May 20, 1964.	2-3	3.4	1	B S	S	R PA		weekly adult newspaper, some elements of basic skills emphasized, useful as basic and supplementary, gives opportunity for functional use of reading, stimulates reading in other newspapers and magazines
* News For You Teacher's Edition, ed, Robert S. Laubach, Syracuse, N.Y.: New Readers Press, 1963-64								
* News For You Level A., ed., Robert S. Laubach, Syracuse, N.Y.: New Readers Press, May 20, 1964	3	3.6	1	B S	S	R PA		
*13. Federal Textbook on Citizenship								
*On the Way to Democracy, Book 1, (Form M-10), Washington, Superintendent of Documents, Revised 1963 Primary			1	B	S	R PA	P	written for foreign born citizenship training, readily adapted for native literacy classes

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
* Rights of the People, Book I (Form M-14), Washington: Superintendent of Documents, Revised 1963.								
*The Business of Our Government Book I (Form M-18), Washington: Superintendent of Documents, Revised 1963.								
*Laws for the Nation, Book I (Form M-22), Washington: Superintendent of Documents.								
*Our Constitution Lives and Grows Book I (Form M-26), Washington: Superintendent of Documents.								
*14. The Editorial Staff, Steps to Learning, Book I, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1965.	Primary		1	B	S	R PA A H	P	basic arithmetic, handwriting, oral language skill, alphabet, sight vocabulary development and phonetic and structural analysis, some teaching instructions, basic vocabulary included, content built around work and recreational activities of adults

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
* 15. Henderson, Ellen C., and Henderson, Twila L., Learning to Read and Write, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.	0-4		I	B	S	R PA A W	P	emphasizes relation between sounds and their written forms, teacher's manual, moves from sight words to consonants to vowels to phonetic and structural analysis techniques, reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic content written at adult interest level, complete word list
16. Building Reading Skills Series Includes: Speedboat Book Streamliner Book Jet Plane Book Rocket Book Atomic Submarine Book Space Ship Book Wichita, Kansas: McCormick-Mathers Publishing Co., Inc.	0-6		I	B	SV	R	P	representative series of text-workbooks available for use with regular school populations, although content geared toward children, has application for literacy groups as practice material, particularly in early stages of instruction, includes complete sequential program in language development

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
* 17. Richards, I.A. and Gibson, C.M., English Through Pictures, New York: Pocket Book Inc., 1952.			I	B	S	R	P	500 basic words with meaning illustrated through pictures, used in teaching English to foreign-born, has application to native born literacy classes
*__________, A First Workbook in English, Cambridge, Massachusetts: English Language Research, Inc., 1956.			I	B	S	R PA	P	correlated with English Through Pictures, drill exercises, illustrated
*__________, Words on Paper, Cambridge, Massachusetts: English Language Research, Inc., 1943.			I	B	S	R PA	P	
18. Laubach, Frank C., Building Your Language Power, Book I, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1965.			I	B	S		P	first in a series of six programmed workbooks, based on the "each one teach one" method, phonics approach, reading and writing skills

REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION MATERIALS

(Level I - Supplementary)

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*1. Educational Division, Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Pleasantville, New York.								
* Reading Skill Builders	2-3		1	S	S	R	P	well graded, exercises and check tests included
* Level I Book 1 Book 2								
* Level II Book 1 Book 2 Book 3								
* Level III Book 1 Book 2 Book 3								
*2. Educational Division, Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Pleasantville, New York.								
* 12 Book Series of Adult Readers.								

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*Second Chance, 1964.	1-2	2.6	1	S	S	R	P	exercises included at end of each story, answers, emphasis on word recognition by sight and context, structural analysis
*Mystery of the Mountains, 1964.	1-2	3.3	1	S	S	R	P	
*Send for Red, 1964.	1-2	3.0	1	S	S	R	P	
*Workers In The Sky, 1964.	1-2	2.2	1	S	S	R	P	
*Men Who Dare The Sea, 1965.	3-4		1	S	S	R	P	
*Santa Fe Traders, 1965.	3-4		1	S	S	R	P	
*Valley of 10,000 Smokes, 1965.	3-4		1	S	S	R	P	
*A Race to Remember, 1965.	3-4		1	S	S	R	P	
*3. Instructional materials, 259 East Erie St., Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates.								
*Reading Laboratory I (word-games)	1-3		1 2	S	SV	R		written for regular school populations, has application for adult literacy as supplemental material, self pacing aspect good, skill coverage good and well sequenced
* " " Ia	1.2-3.0							
* " " Ib	1.4-4.0							
* " " Ic	1.4-4.5							

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*Reading Laboratory IIa	2-5							
* " " IIb	3-6							
* " " IIc	4-7							
*4. United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Joe Wheeler Finds A Job and Learns About Social Security, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1964.		3.0	1 2	S	S	R PA	P	has "work page" after each chapter, consumable booklet, contains word study, comprehension check at end of each section, illustrations helpful
*5. Cass Angelica W., Everyday English and Basic Word List For Adults, New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1964.		3.7	1 2	S	S	R PA H	P	spelling, grammatical usage, handwriting
*6. Guyton, Mary L. and Kielty, Margaret E., From Words to Stories, New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1951.		1.9	1	S	S	R PA	H	English for foreign-born, some application to native born literacy training, vocabulary on an introductory level, review words listed

			Rating					
Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*7. Cass, Angelica W., How We Live. New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1949.		2.1	1 2	S	S	R H	H	written for English for foreign-born, has application for native born literacy training, suggestions for teachers, practice exercises and check tests
*8. ________, Live and Learn. New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1962.		3.3	1 2	S	S	R PA	H	English as a second language, application for mature literacy classes, practice exercises, whole word approach used, word lists excellent for reading, spelling, handwriting
9. Allasina, T.A., and McLeod, N.N., Beginning English for Men and Women Part I. Seattle, Washington: Cascade Pacific Books, 1958.	1	2.5	1	S	S	R H	P	English for foreign-born, may have some application to native born literacy classes, check exercises, practice work, phonic and whole word approach, some confusion of method

				Rating					
	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
10.	Richards, I.A. and Gibson, C.M., Learning the English Language Textbook Workbook 1, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963. (English Language Research, Inc.)	I	2.5	1	S	S	R PA M	P	used for teaching English to foreign born, could be used as supplemental for native born literacy training, primarily oral-aural approach to English, picture association helpful
	__________, Learning the English Language Book 2, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963.		2.5	1	S	S	R	P	
	__________, Workbook for Learning the English Language Book 2, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1949.		2.5	1	S	S	R M	P	written exercises and check tests included
	__________, Learning the English Language Book 3, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963.		3.0	1 2	S	S	R M	P	
	__________, Workbook for Learning the English Language Book 3, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1949.		3.0	1 2	S	S	R M	P	written exercises and check tests

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
________, Teacher's Guide for Learning the English Language Books One, Two and Three, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945								
11. Laubach, Frank C. and Hord, Pauline Jones, A Door Opens, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1963.	3	3.3	1	S	S	R PA	P	vocabulary approach with list of words used, attempts to control vocabulary, introduces new words in each chapter
12. Laubach, Frank C., The Story of Jesus, Part One, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1963.	2	2.4	1 2	S	SV	R	P	supplemental material with a "selected" group of students because of nature of story content, new words listed at beginning of stories, complete list of new words on last page.
________, The Story of Jesus, Part Two, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1963.	3	3.0	1 2	S	SV	R	P	
________, The Story of Jesus, Part Three, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1963.	4	3.9	1 2	S	SV	R	P	

<table>
<tr><th rowspan="2">Bibliographic Information</th><th rowspan="2">Publ. Level</th><th rowspan="2">Formula Level</th><th colspan="5">Rating</th><th rowspan="2">Comments</th></tr>
<tr><th>L.</th><th>B. or S.</th><th>A.I.</th><th>U.</th><th>T.</th></tr>
<tr><td>Adams, Faye E., et al, Heroes of Faith, Syracuse, New York: Reading For You Publications, 1959.</td><td>2</td><td>2.3</td><td>1
2</td><td>S</td><td>SV</td><td>R</td><td>P</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>13. World of Adventure Series.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Bamman, Henry and Whitehead, Robert, The Lost Uranium Mine, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1964.</td><td>2</td><td>2.3</td><td>1</td><td>S</td><td>S</td><td>R</td><td>H</td><td>story content not objectionable to adults, teaching suggestions</td></tr>
<tr><td>__________, Hunting Grizzly Bears, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1963.</td><td>3</td><td>3.8</td><td>1
2</td><td>S</td><td>S</td><td>R</td><td>H</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>__________, Fire on the Mountain, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1963.</td><td>3</td><td>3.6</td><td>1
2</td><td>S</td><td>S</td><td>R</td><td>H</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Teacher's Guide World of Adventure Series, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1964.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>14. The Deep Sea Adventure Series.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>develops basic sight vocabulary, practice exercises with check tests, story content not objectionable to adults</td></tr>
</table>

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
Berres, Frances, Coleman, James C., Briscoe, William S. and Hewett, Frank M., The Pearl Divers, San Francisco: Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 1959.	2	2.8	1	S	SV	R	H	
__________, The Sea Hunt, San Francisco: Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 1959.	1	2.0	1	S	SV	R	H	
__________, A Teacher's Manual For the Deep Sea Adventure Series, San Francisco: Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 1962.								
15. Sailor Jack Series.								
Wassermann, Selma and Wassermann, Jack, Sailor Jack and The Ball Game, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1962.	1	1.5	1	S	SV	R	H	illustrations, whole word approach, controlled vocabulary, most story content not objectionable to adults
__________, Sailor Jack and The Target Ship, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1960.	2	2.9	1	S	SV	R	H	

				Rating					
	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
	_________, Sailor Jack Goes North, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1961.	3	3.2	1	S	SV	R	H	
	_________, Guide For Improvement of Reading and Thinking, Chicago: Benefic Press, 1962.								
16.	Titus, Nicholas and Gebremariam, Negash, Trouble and the Police, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1959.	3	3.0	1 2	S	S	R PA	P	
	Francis, Roger and Iftikhar, Sam, How to Find a Job, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1959.	3-4	3.2	1 2	S	SV	R PA	P	
	Simonsson, Bengt and Roe, Earl, Good Manners in the United States, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1961.	3	3.6	1 2	S	S	R	P	
	Gillespie, George and Wanyee, George, Why You Need Insurance, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, 1959.	4	4.7	1 2	S	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
17. Graff, Stewart, George Washington, Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1964.	3	3.2	1 2	S	SV	R	H	
18. Graves, Charles P., Fourth of July, Champaign, Illinois Garrard Publishing Co., 1963.	3	3.1	1 2	S	SV	R	H	
*19. National Citizenship Education Program, Literacy Reader, The Day Family, Book 1, Washington: Superintendent of Documents, 1944.			1	S	S	R PA	P	moves from simple word level to sentence and paragraph reading,written for naturalization programs, has value for literacy training
*__________, Literacy Reader, The Day Family, Book 2, Washington: Superintendent of Documents, 1943.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*20. Owens, A. A., and Sharlip W., Elementary Education for Adults, Philadelphia: John C. Winston, 1950.			1	S	S	R PA	P	workbook - text, development of vocabulary, topics include "going to school," "learning to read and write," etc.

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*21. Bureau of Indian Affairs Adult Education Series.								
*Clark, Ann Nolan, Safe Drinking Water, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior			1	S	S	R PA	P	illustrations good in most cases, attempt at vocabulary control, published for use with Bureau of Indian Affairs classes
*_________, Group Organization, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1956.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*________, Banking, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1956.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*Duley, Alvin J., Our Family, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*Williamson, Vera, I Am A Good Citizen, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1954.			1	S	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B or S	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*Dailey, Tonita, My Garden, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1954.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*Chilocco Teaching Staff, Campus Behavior, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1953.			1	S	S	R PA	R	
*Best, Mary, Catching Sickness, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1953.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*Hill, Jessie L., I Can Tell Time, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1954.			1	S	S	R PA	P	
*__________, Budget Stretchers, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1953.			1	S	S	R PA	P	

REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION MATERIALS

(Level 2 - Basic)

	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
				L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*1.	Robertson, M.S., Learning and Writing English, Book 1, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1950.	3	3.5	2	B	S	R PA H	P	emphasis on handwriting, correct capitalization, punctuation and grammar, good section on different types of letters, oral and written language material, review of material at previous levels, teacher suggestions
*2.	Smith, Harley A., and King, Ida Lee, How to Read Better, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1952.		4.5	2	B	S	R H	P	workbook type, has practice exercises on vocabulary building, getting general ideas and details, following directions and interpretation, check tests included, good variety of reading, practice in taking different type of tests, good for further practice in basic skills, excellent material, teacher suggestions

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*3. Leavell, Ullin W. and Via, Betty Davis, Teacher's Edition, New Goals in Reading, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1960.	3-4	3.3	2	B	S	R H	P	word analysis reviewed, dictionary usage, experience in test taking, well illustrated, glossary, comprehension checks, vocabulary development, teaching suggestions, developed for regular school populations but has application for adult literacy.
*4. Smith, Harley L. and King, Ida Lee, I Want to Learn English, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1951.	4-5	4.5	2	B	S	R H	P	good for basic communication skills, practice exercises, workbook type, written and oral language, use of dictionary.
*5. U. S. Armed Forces Institute Materials.								
* Dale, Edgar, Stories For Today, MC002, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1954	4.0	4.5	2	B	S	R PA	P	has comprehension checks for each story, includes big word list for each story.
* __________, Test Your Language Skill, MC002.2, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1953	4.0		2	S	S	R PA	R	use with Reader MC002, Part I for writing answers for "Test Your Reading", Part II has exercises for reading and language skills and self-check answers, part II has exercises on language skills and self-check answers.

			Rating					
Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
* __________, Instructor's Course Outline, Reading and Language Development, Grade Level 4, MC002.4, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1954.	4.0		2	B	S	R PA	P	
*6. U. S. Armed Forces Institute Materials.								
*Dale, Edgar, Stories Worth Knowing, MC003, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1962.	5.0	5.2	2	B	S	R PA	P	comprehension check at end of stories, key word lists
* __________, Use Your Language Tools, MC003.2, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1954	5.0		2	S	S	R PA	P	first part answer sheets for "Testing Your Reading" in reader C 003, second part practice exercises on reading skills and language usage
* __________, Instructor's Course Outline, Fifth Grade Reading and Other Language Skills, MC003.4, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1955.	5.0		2	B	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
*7. U. S. Armed Forces Institute Materials.								
*Dale, Edgar, New Flights in Reading, Reader MC004, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1964.	6.0	6.4	2 3	B	S	R PA	P	can be used as basal text with teacher supplementing skill exercises, has comprehension checks after each story and introduces new words
*_________, Know Your English Workbook, C004.2, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1960.	6.0		2 3	B	S	R PA	P	workbook for use with reader MC004.4, Part I has answer spaces for comprehension checks in reader, Part II has variety of exercises in vocabulary building, languages skills, and spelling, self-check answers for exercises, variety of exercises
*_________, New Flights in Reading, Instructor's Guide, MC004.4 Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1956								

			Rating					
Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*8. News For You, Level A, ed., Robert S. Laubach, Syracuse, N.Y.: New Reader's Press, May 20, 1964.	4	4.0	2	B S	S	R PA		weekly adult newspaper, some elements of basic skills emphasized, useful as basic and supplementary material, gives opportunity for functional use of reading, comprehension checks, stimulates reading in other papers and magazines
*News For You Teacher's Edition, ed., Robert S. Laubach, Syracuse, N.Y.: New Readers Press, 1963-64.								
*9. Weinhold, Clyde E., English, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1962.	5-6	5.6	2	B	S	R	P	use as supplementary in reading program, basic for development of language skills including sentence structure, vocabulary usage, oral English, punctuation, ways of obtaining information, writing letters, with supplementary practice exercises can serve as basic material
*10. Federal Textbook On Citizenship.	Intermediate		2	B	S	R PA	P	written for foreign-born citizenship training, readily adapted for native literacy classes
*On The Way to Democracy, Book 2 (Form M-11), Washington: Superintendent of Documents								

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*Rights of the People Book 2 (Form M-15), Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents	Inter-mediate		2	B	S	R PA	P	written for foreign-born citizenship training, readily adapted for native literacy classes
*The Business of Our Government Book 2 (Form M-19), Washington: Superintendent of Documents.								
*Laws for The Nation, Book 2, (Form M-23), Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents								
*Our Constitution Lives and Grows Book 2 (Form M-27), Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.								
*Our Constitution and Government Simplified Edition (Form M-8), Washington: Superintendent of Documents, 1955.								

REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION MATERIALS

(Level 2 - Supplementary)

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*1. Educational Division, Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Pleasantville, New York								
Reading Skill Builders								
* Level IV Book 1 Book 2 Book 3	4-5		2	S	S	R	P	well graded, exercises and check tests
* Level V Book 1 Book 2 Book 3	5		2	S	S	R	P	well graded, exercises and check tests
* Level VI Book 1 Book 2 Book 3	6		2 3	S	S	R	P	well graded, exercises and check tests
*Science Reader								
Orange Book Green Book Blue Book Red Book	4-6		2	S	S	R	P	well graded, exercises and check tests

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*12 Book Series of Adult Readers.	5-6		2	S	S	R	P	exercises included at end of each story, answers included, emphasis on word recognition, comprehension, vocabulary
* I Fell 18,000 Feet, 1965								
* What's On the Moon?, 1965								
* First at the Finish, 1965								
* Guides to High Adventure, 1965								
*2. Instructional Materials, 259 East Erie St., Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates.								
* Reading Lab. (Elementary Edition)	2-9		2 3	S	SV	R		although written for regular school populations, has application for adult literacy as supplemental material if integrated into program, self pacing aspect, skill coverage, good and well sequenced
* " " IIIa	3-12							
* " " IIIa(1964 Edition)	3-11							
* " " IIIb	5-12							
* Reading for Understanding - General Edition	5-12							
* Reading for Understanding-Jr. Edition	3-8							

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*Spelling Word Power Laboratory IIb	5		2 3	S	SV	R		although written for regular school populations, has application for adult literacy as supplemental material
*Spelling Word Power Lab. IIc	6							
*Spelling Word Power Lab. IIIa	7							
*New Rochester Occupational Reading Series, Level I, Level II, and Level III.	2,3-4, 4-5		2 3	S	SV	R PA		although written for regular school populations, has application for adult literacy as supplemental material
*3. Rosenfeld, Jeannette B. and Cass, Angelica W., Write Your Own Letter, New York: Noble & Noble Publishers, Inc., 1964		3.6	2	S	S	R H	P	covers mechanics and practice in writing business letters, social letters and filling out common forms
*4. Dixon, Robert J., The U.S.A. The Land and The People, New York: Regents Publishing Co., Inc., 1959	elem.	6.0	2 3	S	S	R	P	written for English as a second language, comprehension checks and vocabulary drill included

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*5. Cass, Angelica W., Your Family And Your Job, New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1948		2.8	2	S	S	R PA	H	emphasis is on vocabulary development rather than reading skills, written for English for foreign born, has application to native born literacy classes, some suggestions for teachers, practice exercises and check tests
6. English Language Research, Inc., Learning The English Language, Book IV, Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953.	4	4.9	2	S	S	R	P	teaching English to foreign born, aural-oral, may have some application to literacy for native born, picture association
*7. Allasina, T.A. and McLoed, N.N., Beginning English for Men and Women, Part II, Seattle, Wash.; Cascade Pacific Books, 1962.		4.4	2	S	S	R H	P	English for foreign born, may have some application to native born literacy classes practice work, check exercises, structure of English and whole word vocabulary building approach, vocabulary not controlled, more language-oriented than reading, work type exercises included

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*8. Grover, Charles C. and Anderson, Donald G., New Practice Readers, Book B, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960	3	3.2	2	S	SV	R	P	value in vocabulary, review, taking tests, introduction to unit on "How to Study" giving variety to classroom, review for slow learners, checking reading rate
* Stone, Clarence R., New Practice Reader, Book C, St. Louis, Mo.; Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947.	4	4.7	2	S	SV	R	P	vocabulary list and test as prereading exercise, comprehension test following each story, record of student progress at end of book, rate and comprehension, for initial effort at rate building
* Stone, Clarence R., Grover, Charles C. and Anderson, Donald G., New Practice Readers, Book E, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.	6	5.6	2	S	S	R	P	test exercise with practice materials, good supplementary skill development, has comprehension and vocabulary checks for each story, useful for starting students in timed readings
*9. Shawn, Bernard, Foundations of Citizenship, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1963.		4.7	2 3	S	S	R PA	H	practice exercises, lists of vocabulary in various areas helpful, topics of particular interest to adults, reference book

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
								covers reading, the family, the community getting and holding a job, taxes, spending and saving, insurance, recreation and leisure time, citizenship, life activities, aimed at young adults
*10. Hudson, Margaret W. and Weaver, Ann A., Getting Ready For Pay Day, Part I: Checking Accounts, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1963.		4.9	2	S	S	R PA A H	P	pertinent topics include practice exercises in filling out forms, comprehension checks, illustrations helpful
* ________, Getting Ready For Pay Day, Part II: Savings Accounts, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1963.		4.8	2	S	S	R PA A H	P	
* ________, Getting Ready For Pay Day, Part III: Planning Ahead, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1963.		5.5	2	S	S	R PA A H	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*11. Mooney, Thomas J., The Getting Along Series of Skills-Work-Books, After School is Out, Vol. I "A", Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1963.		4.2	2	S	S	R PA A	P	workbook type, includes spelling, word building and study, discussion questions and practice exercises, has suggestions for projects, films for each unit, topics for young adults
* ________, The Getting Along Series of Skills-Workbooks, Al Looks For A Job, Vol. II, "A", Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1964.		4.3	2	S	S	P PA A H	P	
* ________, The Getting Along Series of Skills-Workbooks, On The Job, Vol. III "A", Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1964.		4.3	2	S	S	R PA A H	P	
*12. Corcoran, Eileen Lynch, Rights And Duties of Citizens, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1964.		4.2	2	S	S	R PA H	P	practice exercises on use of words, knowledge of materials read and filling out various forms, designed for teenage user

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*13. Hudson, Margaret W. and Weaver, Ann A., I Want A Job, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1964.		4.9	2	S	S	R PA	P	includes exercises in filling out forms as well as comprehension checks, illustrations helpful
*14. Prevo, Helen R., The Happy Housekeepers, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1964.		4.4	2	S	S	R PA H	P	practice exercises on word meaning, usage, comprehension, suggested projects questionable, word list at end of book for females
*15. Herber, Harold L., Learning Your Language Book I, Conflict and Courage, Chicago, Ill.: Follett Publishing Co., 1964.	4-6	5.1	2	S	SV	R	P	has exercises on word analysis and meaning, getting main idea, and reading interpretation. includes comprehension checks, consumable text, a possibility, written primarily for adolescents
* __________, Learning Your Language Book II, Escape to Danger, Chicago, Ill.: Follett Publishing Co., 1964	4-6	5.3	2	S	SV	R	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
* ________, Learning Your Language Book III, Folk Tales and Folk Songs, Chicago, Ill.: Follett Publishing Co., 1964.	4-6	4.8	2	S	SV	R	P	
*16. Abramowitz, Jack, Study Lessons In Our Nation's History, Unit I: How America Became A Nation, Chicago, Ill.: Follett Publishing Co., 1964.	4-6	4.7	2	S	S	R	P	consumable text, lists of new words, comprehension checks, finding main idea, outlining, vocabulary, completion, pronunciation key
* ________, Study Lessons In Our Nation's History, Unit II: The New Nation Is Launched: Chicago, Ill.: Follett Publishing Co., 1964.	4-6	5.6	2	S	S	R	P	consumable text, lists of new words, comprehension checks, finding main ideas, outlining, vocabulary, completion tests, pronunciation key
*17. Cass, Angelica W., How To Become A United States Citizen, New York: Noble and Noble, Publishers, Inc., 1963		3.7	2	S	S	R PA	P	English as a second language, may have application to native literacy teaching in citizenship training
*18. Crothers, George D., American History, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964	5-6	5.4	2 3	S	S	R	P	has comprehension checks at end of each chapter, overview of historical development of U.S.

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
19. Stone, Clarence R. and Grover, Charles C., New Practice Readers, Book D, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.	5	5	2	S	SV	R	P	includes comprehension checks and vocabulary exercises after each short story, word list for each story, an easy beginning for rate improvement
20. National Dairy Council Nutrition and Health Pamphlets.								
Letton, Mildred C., It's Always Breakfast Time Somewhere, Chicago, Ill.: National Dairy Council, 1947		5.3	2	S	S	R PA	P	
Feeding Your Baby During His First Year, Chicago, Ill.: National Dairy Council, 1959		4.6	2	S	S	R PA	P	mainly for mothers with small children
Piltz, Albert, How Your Body Uses Food, Chicago, Ill.: National Dairy Council, 1960		5.6	2	S	S	R PA	P	useful illustrations
Letton, Mildred C., Hello South America, Chicago, Ill.: National Dairy Council, 1943		5.4	2	S	S	R	P	well illustrated

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B or S	A.I.	U	T.	Comments
________, Hello From Alaska, Chicago, Ill.: National Dairy Council, 1945.		5.1	2	S	S	R	P	well illustrated
________, Hello U.S.A., Chicago, Ill.: National Dairy Council, 1961		5.3	2	S	S	R PA	P	well illustrated
21. Deep Sea Adventure Series.								
Coleman, James C., Berres, Francis, Hewett, Frank M. and Briscoe, Wm. S., Rocket Divers, San Francisco, Calif., Harr Wager Publishing Co., 1962.	Low 5	4.8	2	S	SV	R	H	basic sight vocabulary, practice exercises with check tests
22. Morgan Bay Mystery Series.								
Rambeau, John and Rambeau, Nancy, The Mystery Of The Missing Marlin, San Francisco, Calif.: Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 1962	3	3.5	2	S	SV	R	H	comprehension check questions for each chapter, controlled vocabulary, word list included, well illustrated, exercises at back of book give experience in multiple choice, negative statements, related work groups, T-F, completion, outlining, word meanings, and many thought-stimulating exercises

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comment
								questions, good for answering in writing or in class discussion
23. Wildlife Adventure Series	4	4.2	2	S	S	R	H	practice exercises, comprehension checks, questions for each chapter, controlled vocabulary
Leonard, Rhoda and Briscoe, Wm. S., Skipper The Dolphin, San Francisco, Calif.: Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 1964								
24. World of Adventure Series								
Bamman, Henry and Whitehead, Robert, The Search For Piranha, Chicago, Ill.: Benefic Press, 1964.	4	4.4	2	S	S	R	H	
________, City Beneath The Sea, Chicago, Ill.: Benefic Press, 1964.	4	4.6	2	S	S	R	H	
________, Sacred Well of Sacrifice, Chicago, Ill.: Benefic Press, 1964.	4	4.3	2	S	S	R	H	

	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
				L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
	________, Teacher's Guide, World Of Adventure Series, Chicago, Ill.: Benefic Press, 1964.								
25.	The Trojan War, adapted by: Kottmeyer, William, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952.		3.1	2	S	S	R	P	many adults feel keenly their lack of knowledge in literature, they are usually interested in myths and folk tales if the stories are not too long, "Pronouncing Helps" useful for proper names
	Ollivant, Aldred, Bob, Son of Battle, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.	3	3.1	2	S	S	R	P	
	Doyle, Sir A. Conan, Cases of Sherlock Holmes, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947.	3	3.3	2	S	S	R	P	
	The Robin Hood Stories, adapted by: Kottmeyer, William, St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952.	3	3.0	2	S	S	R	P	

			Rating					
Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*26. Globe Readable Classics.								
* Scott, Sir Walter, *Ivanhoe*, adapted by: Holmes Mabel D., New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1943.	5-6	6.7	2	S	S	R		some comprehension checks and teaching aids, reading material for the adult with developing skills
* Dumas, Alexander, *The Count of Monte Cristo*, adapted by: Holmes, Mabel D., New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1945.	6-7	5.2	2	S	S	R	P	
* Dickens, Charles, *A Tale of Two Cities*, adapted by: Holmes, Mabel D., New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1941.	6-7	5.2	2 3	S	S	R	P	
* Stevenson, Robert L., *Treasure Island*, adapted by: Holmes, Mabel D., New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1948.	5-6	5.5	2 3	S	S	R	P	
* Melville, Herman, *Moby Dick*, adapted by: Holmes, Mabel D., New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1950.	6-7	6.0	2 3	S	S	R	P	

				Rating					
	Bibliographic Information	Pub. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
	*Twain, Mark, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, adapted by: Holmes, Mabel D., New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1951.	5-6	4.4	2 3	S	S	R	P	
27.	Life In America Series								
	Tompkins, Stuart R., Alaska, Grand Rapids, Mich.: The Fideler Co., 1963.		5.4	2	S	S	R	H	discussion questions, glossary of terms, well illustrated
28.	Story of America Series								
	Fisher, Margaret and Fowler, Mary Jane, Colonial America, Grand Rapids, Mich.: The Fideler Co., 1962		5.0	2	S	S	R	H	discussion questions, glossary of terms, well illustrated
29.	Baldwin, Orrel T., The Story Of Our America, Text-Workbook Edition, New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1964	5	5.3	2	S	S	R	P	text-workbook, contains review exercises after each unit, variety of exercises

	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
				L	B. or S.	S.I.	U.	T.	Comments
30.	Duffy, Fred H., The Great Law Of Our Land, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc.	7-12	5.0	2	S	S	R	P	text-workbook type contains exercises on vocabulary and facts presented in text
31.	How And Why Wonder Books								
	Bonsall, George, Weather, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.		4.6	2 3	S	SV	R	H	usually well illustrated, either hardcover or paper-back, illustrations helpful
	Notkin, Jerome J. and Gulkin, Sidney, Electricity, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960		4.9	2 3	S	SV	R	H	
	Hoss, Norman, Stars, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.		5.3	2 3	S	SV	R	H	
	Keen, Martin L., Science Experiments, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1962		5.6	2 3	S	SV	R	H	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comment
Hyler, Nelson W., Rocks and Minerals, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1964		5.3	2 3	S	SV	R	H	
32. How And Why Wonder Books								
Barr, Donald, Building, New York: Wonder Books, Inc., 1964		5.4	2 3	S	SV	R	H	usually well illustrated, either hardcover or paperback
Sutton, Felix, World War II, New York: Wonder Books, Inc., 1962.		5.5	2 3	S	SV	R	H	
33. Corcoran, Eileen L., Finding Ourselves, Phoenix, N.Y.: Frank E. Richards, 1964.		4.6	2	S	SV	R PA A H	P	gives opportunity for using compass, etc. good practice in taking tests
34. Laubach, Frank E. and Hord, Pauline J., Going Forward, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1963	4	4.6	2	S	S	R PA	P	controlled vocabulary with new words introduced and listed for each chapter, whole word approach, religious emphasis

	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
				L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
35.	Meadowcraft, Enid L., Land Of The Free, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1961.	7 & up	3.9	2	S	S	R	H	
36.	Lauber, Patricia, The Congo River Into Central Africa, Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Publishing Co., 1964.	5	5.5	2 3	S	S	R	H	
37.	Reynolds, James J., Horn, Mary A. and Mizell, Phoebe, Short Stories Of Famous Men, New York: Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1953.	4	5.6	2 3	S	S	R	H	includes introduction of new words and comprehension check questions after each story
38.	Cain, Wilma W., Story Of America: Transportation, Grand Rapids, Mich.: The Fideler Co., 1961.		4.9	2 3	S	S	R	H	excellent illustrations, discussion questions, glossary, index
	Fowler, Mary J. and Fisher, Margaret, Great Americans, Grand Rapids, Mich.: The Fideler Co., 1962.		5.7	2 3	S	S		H	
39.	Nathan, Adele G., Lincoln's America, New York: Grosset and Dunlap Publishers, 1961.		5.4	2 3	S	S	R	H	

			Rating					
Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
________, Churchill's England, New York: Grosset and Dunlap Publishers, 1963.		6.0	2 3	S	S	R	H	
Bryant, Will, Kit Carson and The Mountain Men, New York: Grosset and Dunlap Publishers, 1960.		5.5	2	S	S	R	H	
40. Potter, Robert R. and Robinson, H. Alan, Myths and Folk Tales Around The World, New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1963.	3-4	4.4	2 3	S	S	R	H	planned for supplemental reading for remedial programs but has application, glossary for each story, work type exercises
__________, Myths and Folk Tales Around the World, Teacher's Guide, New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1963.								
Wolfe, Louis, Stories Of Our American Past, New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1955		5.8	2 3	S	SV	R	H	comprehension exercises included at end of each story
41. World Explorer Books								
Kaufman, Mervyn D., A World Explorer: Christopher Columbus, Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Publishing Co., 1963.	4	4.5	2	S	S	R	H	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
42. Rounds, Glen, Buffalo Harvest, New York: Holiday House, 1952.	5-8	6.3	2	S	SV	R	H	
Wellman, Manly Wade, Rebel Mail Runner, New York: Holiday House, 1954	6-8	5.9	2	S	SV	R	H	
Harkins, Philip, Double Play, New York: Holiday House, 1951.	8-10	5.7	2	S	SV	R	H	
__________, Knockout, New York: Holiday House, 1950.	8-10	5.1	2	S	SV	R	H	
43. Steele, William O., The Story of Daniel Boone, New York: Grosset and Dunlap Publishers, 1953		5.2	2	S	SV	R	H	
Epstein, Sam and Epstein, Beryl, George Washington Carver, New York: Grosset and Dunlap Publishers, 1960.		6.3	2	S	SV	R	H	
44. Life Nature Library (Adaptation)								
Engel, Leonard, The Sea, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.	upper elem.	5.5	2 3	S	S	R	H	workbook for each title

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
Washton, Nathan S., *Teacher's Guide And Resource Manual: The Sea*, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.								
________, *Independent Achievement Worksheets With Answer Key: The Sea*, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.								
Leopold, A. Starker, *The Desert*, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.	upper elem.	5.5	2 3	S	S	R	H	
Goldberg, Minerva J., *Teacher's Guide And Resource Manual: The Desert*, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.								
________, *Independent Achievement Worksheets With Answer Key: The Desert*, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.								

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
Farb, Peter, The Forest, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.	upper elem.	5.6	2 3	S	S	R	H	
Skolnick, Mrs. Mira, Teacher's Guide And Resource Manual: The Forest, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.								
________, Independent Achievement Worksheets With Answer Key: The Forest, Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1964.								
45. Portewood, T. B., and Portewood, M. E., Our Democracy, Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1953			2	S	S	R	P	working of democracy, relation of individual to government and government's relation to individual, tests and study exercises

	Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
				L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
46.	Hollander, Sophie Smith, Impression of the United States, New York, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1964.	5-6		2	S	S	R PA	P	written for use in English for foreign-born classes, a series of letters, describing the American Scene
47.	Bureau of Indian Affairs Adult Education Series.								
	Johnson, Mary S., The Story of Minerals, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1953.			2	S	S	R PA	P	illustrations good in most cases, attempt at vocabulary control, published for use with Bureau of Indian Affairs classes
	Rhodes, Joy, Carpentry Handbook, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affiars, Department of the Interior, 1953.			2	S	S	R PA	P	
	Hollowell, Betty, The Dry Cleaner's Helper, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior, 1953			2	S	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
48. Hereby Hangs The Tale Series.								
Hurst, John A., and Tom, Judith J., Fascinating Stories From Yesterday, Chicago: Mid-America Publishing, Inc., 1965.	6		2	S	S	R	H	each book contains ten stories about people and events in history, content and format useful
________, Out of The Past, Chicago: Mid-America Publishing, Inc., 1965.	5		2	S	S	R	H	

REVIEW AND APPRAISAL OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION MATERIALS

(Level 3 - Supplementary)

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*1. Educational Division Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Pleasantville, New York.								
*Advanced Reading Skillbuilders								
*Book 1	7.0		3	S	S	R	P	well graded, exercises and check tests
*Book 2	8.0							
*Book 3								
*Book 4								
*Help Yourself to Improve Your Reading								
Part 1	7.0		3	S	S	R	P	
Part 2	8.0							
*2. Instructional Materials, 259 East Erie St., Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates								
*Reading Laboratory IIIa	2-9		3	S	SV	R		written for regular school populations, has application for adults if integrated into program
*Reading Laboratory IIIa (1964)	3-12							
*Reading Laboratory IIIb	3-11							
*Reading Laboratory IVa	9-12							

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating L	 B. or S.	 A.I.	 U.	 T.	Comments
*Reading for Understanding-General Edition	5-12							
*Reading for Understanding-Junior Edition	3-8							
*Words Program	7-9							
*Spelling Word Power IIb	5							
*Spelling Word Power IIc	6							
*Spelling Word Power IIIa	7							
*3. General Programmed Teaching Corporation, How A Bill Becomes Law, Albuquerque, New Mexico: Ginn and Co., 1963.	7-12		3	S	S	R	P	programmed text
* __________, The Constitution, Albuquerque, New Mexico: Ginn and Co., 1963.	7-12		3	S	S	R	P	programmed text
*4. Kottmeyer, William, Our Constitution and What It Means, St. Louis: Webster Publishing Co., 1961.	7-12		3	S	S	R	P	programmed text
*5. Bohlman, Edna McCaull, Democracy and Its Competitors, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1962.	4-12	6.0	3	S	S	R	P	has comprehension test and glossary, illustrations

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*6. Abramowitz, Jack, Study Lessons On Documents of Freedom, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1964.		7.2	3	S	S	R PA	P	exercises and check tests, consumable text, comprehension and vocabulary exercises
7. McMillen, Wheeler, Why The United States is Rich, Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1963.	7-8	6.6	3	S	S	R	P	useful information
*8. Dixson, Robert J. and Fox, Herbert, The U.S.A.-Men and History, New York: Regents Publishing Co., 1960.	intermediate	6.3	3	S	S	R	P	has comprehension checks
*9. American History Study Lessons.								
*Abramowitz, Jack, From Colonial Times to Independence, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.	7-9	6.7	3	S	S	R	P	series is consumable text, exercises for vocabulary development and comprehension checks, provision for reading rate, stress on content reading skills, record book available for writing answers
*________, The Constitution, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		7.2	3	S	S	R	P	
*________, The Growing Nation, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		7.6	3	S	S	R	P	
*________, Comprehension Checks Units 1,2, and 3, American History Study Lessons, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.								

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
* __________, Change and Crisis in American Life: 1800-1861, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963		7.1	3	S	S	R	P	
* __________, The Civil War and Reconstruction, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		7.2	3	S	S	R	P	
* __________, Changing America Since 1865, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		6.6	3	S	S	R	P	
* __________, Comprehension Checks Units 4, 5, and 6, American History Study Lessons, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.								
* __________, American Politics: 1865-1960, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		7.5	3	S	S	R	P	
* __________, American Foreign Policy, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963		7.3	3	S	S	R	P	
* __________, Problems of American Democracy, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		7.2	3	S	S	R	P	
* __________, Comprehension Checks Units 7, 8 and 9, American History Study Lessons, Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1963.		5.1	3	S	S	R	H	has useful illustrations and comprehension checks for each unit, includes a glossary

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
10. Grosseck, Joyce and Attwood, Elizabeth, Great Explorers. Grand Rapids, Michigan: The Fideler Co., 1962		5.1	3	S	S	R	H	has useful illustrations and comprehension checks for each unit, includes a glossary
11. Law, Frederick Houk, Great Americans, New York: Globe Book Co., 1953.	6-7	6.8	3	S	SV	R	H	discussion questions, brief tests
12. Folsom, Franklin, The Explorations of America, New York: Grosset and Dunlop, 1958.		6.0	3	S	SV	R	H	
*13. Great American Series								
*Vinmont, Rolf Benj., Our Presidents at a Glance, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1961.		7.2	3	S	S	R	H	reference material, Illustrated
*Heath, Monroe, Great Americans at a Glance, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1955.		7.3	3	S	S		H	
*Heath, Monroe, Great American Inventors and Scientists at a Glance, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1956.		7.2	3	S	S	R	H	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating L.	 B. or S.	 A.I.	 U.	 T.	Comments
* __________, Great American Authors, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1961.		7.3	3	S	S	R	H	
* __________, Great American Women, Menlo Park, California; Pacific Coast Publishers, 1957.		8.0	3	S	S	R	H	
* __________, Great Events of American History, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1957.		8.4	3	S	S	R	H	
* __________, Our Fifty States At a Glance, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1961.		7.1	3	S	S	R	H	
* __________, Our National Parks, Redwood City, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1959.		7.0	3	S	S		H	
* __________, Great American Rivers, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1960.		7.0	3	S	S	R	H	
* __________, Our American Indians at a Glance, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1961.		7.6	3	S	S	R	H	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
			Rating					
* ________, Great American Mountains at a Glance, Menlo Park, California: Pacific Coast Publishers, 1962.		7.0	3	S	S	R	H	
*14. Money Management Series								
* Money Management Institute of Household Finance Corporation, Your Guide for Teaching Money Management, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1964.								
* ________, Children's Spending, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1955.		7.2	3	S	S	R PA	P	pertinent topics, useful information for adults, filmstrips also available.
* ________, Your Food Dollar, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1960.		7.1	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, Your Shopping Dollar, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1962.		7.4	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, Your Shelter Dollar, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1957		7.5	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, Your Savings and Investment Dollar, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1959.		7.2	3	S	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
* ________, *Your Home Furnishings Dollar*, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1963.		7.4	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, *Your Health and Recreation Dollar*, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1961.		7.1	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, *Your Equipment Dollar*, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1963.		6.9	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, *Your Clothing Dollar*, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1959.		6.7	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, *Young Moderns*, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1963.		6.9	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, *Your Automobile Dollar*, CHicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1963.		6.9	3	S	S	R PA	P	
* ________, *Your Budget*, Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1960.		6.8	3	S	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
15. Mors, Wallace P., Consumer Credit Facts For You, Cleveland: Bureau of Business Research, Western Reserve University, 1959.		7.3	3	S	S	R PA	P	
________, Small Loan Laws, Cleveland: Bureau of Business Research, Western Reserve University, 1961.		6.9	3	S	S	R PA	P	
16. Public Relations Staff, General Motors, Can I Be A Craftsman? Detroit: General Motors, 1963.	upper elem. & jr. Hi	7.5	3	S	S	R PA	P	helpful illustrations, topics of particular interest to males
________, Can I Be A Technician? Detroit: General Motors, 1962.	upper elem. & jr. Hi	8.0	3	S	S	R PA	P	
________, Can I Be A Scientist or Engineer? Detroit: General Motors, 1963.	upper elem. & jr. hi	8.1	3	S	S	R PA	P	
________, Can I Be A Draftsman? Detroit: General Motors, 1963.	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.7	3	S	S	R PA	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
________, Can I Make The Production Team? Detroit: General Motors	upper elem & jr. hi	7.1	3	S	S	R PA	P	
________, Can I Be An Office Worker? Detroit: General Motors, 1963.	upper elem. & jr. hi	8.4	3	S	S	R PA	P	
________, Transportation Progress, Detroit: General Motors, 1963.	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.1	3	S	S	R	P	
Kettering, C.F., Short Stories of Science and Invention, Detroit General Motors, 1963.		7.0	3	S	S	R	P	
Public Relations Staff, General Motors, Metallurgy and Wheels, Detroit: General Motors, 1963.	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.0	3	S	S	R	P	
________, Power Goes to Work, Detroit: General Motors, 1964.	upper elem. & jr. hi	6.5	3	S	S	R	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
Public Relations Staff, General Motors, The Story of Power, Detroit: General Motors, 1956.	upper elem. & jr. hi	6.5	3	S	S	R	P	
________, ABC's of Hand Tools, Detroit: General Motors, 1964.	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.1	3	S	S	R	P	
__________, Optics and Wheels, Detroit: General Motors, 1958	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.0	3	S	S	R	P	
_________, Adventures of the Inquiring Mind, Detroit: General Motors, 1957.	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.6	3	S	S	R	P	
________, A Power Primer, Detroit: General Motors, 1955	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.0	3	S	S	R	P	
________, How The Wheels Revolve, Detroit: General Motors, 1952	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.0	3	S	S	R	P	
Richardson, Ralph A., Electricity And Wheels, Detroit: General Motors, 1953.	upper elem. & jr. hi	7.2	3	S	S	R	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
________, Diesel: The Modern Power, Detroit: General Motors, 1964.	upper elem. & jr. hi	6.7	3	S	S	R	P	
17. Arnold, Pauline, Money: Make It, Save It, Spend It, New York: Holiday House, 1962.	8 & up	7.3	3	S	S	R PA	H	pertinent topics
Arnold, Pauline and White, Percival, Clothes and Cloth America's Apparel Business, New York: Holiday House, 1961.	8 & up	7.7	3	S	S	R PA	H	
________, Food: America's Biggest Business, New York: Holiday House, 1959.	8 & up	7.3	3	S	S	R PA	H	has vocational application
________, Homes: America's Building Business, New York: Holiday House, 1960.	8 & up	6.0	3	S	S	R	H	
18. Ferraro, Douglas P., Your Car And Safe Driving, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1964.	7-12		3	S	SV	R	P	programed text
19. National Dairy Council Nutrition and Health Pamphlets								

			Rating					
Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
McEnery, E. T. and Suydam, Margaret Jane, Feeding Little Folks, Chicago, Ill.; National Dairy Council, 1952.		5.5	3	S	SV	R PA	P	useful for mothers of small children
20. Man Improves His World Series.								
Heffernan, Helen and Shaftel, George, The Soil Story, Syracuse, N. Y.: The L.W. Singer Co., 1963.		6.5	3	S	SV	R	P	has study aids and glossary
________, The Wildlife Story, Syracuse, N.Y.: The L.W. Singer Co., 1963		6.4	3	S	SV	R	P	
________, The Water Story, Syracuse, N.Y.: The L.W. Singer Co., 1963.		6.3	3	S	SV	R	P	
________, The Minerals Story, Syracuse, N.Y., The L. W. Singer Co., 1963.		6.5	3		SV	R	P	
________, The Fisheries Story, Syracuse, N.Y.; The L. W. Singer Co., 1963.		6.5	3	S	S	R	P	
________, The Forestry Story, Syracuse, N. Y.: The L. S. Singer Co., 1963.		6.6	3	S	SV	R	P	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
________, The Energy Story, Syracuse, N.Y.: The L. W. Singer Co., 1963.		6.6	3	S	SV	R	P	
21. The Wonder Book Series.								
Sutton, Felix, Winning of The West, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1963.		6.2	3	S	S	R	H	well illustrated, hard-cover or paperback
________, The American Revolution, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1963.		6.0	3	S	S	R	H	
________, The Moon, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1963.		6.2	3	S	S	R	H	
________, Our Earth, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.		7.3	3	S	S	R	H	
Robbin, Irving, North America, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1962.		6.6	3	S	S	R	H	

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
22. The Wonder Book Series.								
Robbin, Irving, North America New York: Wonder Books, 1962.		6.6	3	S	S	R	P	well illustrated story
Bethell, Jean, Famous Scientists New York: Wonder Books, 1964.		6.5	3	S	S	R	P	
23. Lambert, Eloise and Pei, Mario, Our Names: Where They Came From And What They Mean, New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co., Inc., 1960		7.0	3	S	SV	R	H	
________, The Book of Place Names, New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., Inc., 1959.	all ages	6.8	3	S	SV	R	H	
24. Atkinson, Eleanor, Johnny Appleseed, New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1943		6.5	3	S	SV	R	H	
25. Shippen, Katherine B., Men, Microscopes, and Living Things, New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1955.	5 & up	6.0	3	S	SV	R	P	
Hickok, Lorena A., The Story of Helen Keller, New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1958.		6.1	3	S	S	R	P	

Bibliograph Information	l. Pu el Le	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
26. Freedman, Russell, 2000 Years of Space Travel, New York: Holiday House, 1963.	up &	6.7	3	S	SV	R	H	
Arnold, Pauline and White, Percival, The Automation Age, New York: Holiday House, 1963	& up 8	7.0	3	S	SV	R PA	H	technical vocabulary, difficult, has vocational application
27. Ross, Frank, Jr., Automation: Servant to Man, New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., Inc., 1958.		7.6	3	S	SV	R	H	technical vocabulary, difficult, has vocational application
*28. Federal Textbook on Citizenship								
*On the Way to Democracy Book 3 (Form M-12), Washington: Superintendent of Documents	dvanced		3	S	S	R PA	P	written for foreign—born citizenship training
*Rights of the People Book 3 (Form M-16), Washington: Superintendent of Documents								
*The Business of Our Government Book 3 (Form M-20), Washington: Superintendent of Documents								
*Laws for the Nation Book 3 (Form M-24), Washington: Superintendent of Documents								

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
*Our Constitution Lives and Grows Book 3 (Form M-28), Washington: Superintendent of Documents.								
*29. Crabtree, Arthur, You and the Law, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.			3	S	S	R PA	H	stresses rights and responsibilities of citizens, includes marriage and divorce, wills, contracts, etc.
*30. News For You Level B, ed. Robert S. Laubach, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, May 20, 1964.	dvan- ced	6.5	3	S	S	R PA	P	weekly adult newspaper, elements of basic skills emphasized, gives opportunity for functional use of reading, comprehension checks, stimulates reading in other newspapers and magazines, excellent adult orientation
*31. Weinhold, Clyde E., English, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1962.	6 5-		3	S	S	R PA H	P	basics in English including sentence structure, vocabulary, usage and oral English, oral and written communication, ways of getting information, for advanced literacy classes

Bibliographic Information	bl. vel	Formula Level	L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	Comments
			Rating					
*32. Advanced Series. *Wachner, Clarence W., English For Adults, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1964.	. hi j		3	S	S	R PA H	P	extension of English to advanced areas
*Pomeroy, John H., Science, New York, Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1964.	-6 5		3	S	S	R PA H	P	emphasis on scientific method, the earth, world of matter, and energy, living matter, the human body and health for advanced literacy classes
33. Israel, Saul, Introduction to Geography, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1964.	-6 5		3	S	S	R PA	P	world geography for advanced classes
34. Fairchild, Johnson E., Principles of Geography for Adults, New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1964.	. hi jr		3	S	S	R PA	P	physical geography for advanced classes
35. Crothers, George D., American History, New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1964.	-6 5		3	S	S	R PA	P	concise summary of American history, for use with advanced literacy classes

Bibliographic Information	Publ. Level	Formula Level	Rating					Comments
			L.	B. or S.	A.I.	U.	T.	
36. Hereby Hangs The Tale Series.								
Hurst, John A., and Tom, Judith J., *The Strange and The Impossible*, Chicago: Mid-America Publishing, Inc., 1965.	8		3	S	S	R	H	each book contains ten stories about people and events in history, content and format useful
________, *Famous Americans*, Chicago: Mid-America Publishing, Inc., 1965.	7		3	S	S	R	H	

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*1. Shea, James T., Working With Numbers. Austin, Texas: The Steck Co., 1954.

*2. Home And Family Life Series.

*Bright, Emma Lewis and Mitchell, Eva Cornelia, Workbook In Arithmetic, New London, Conn.: Arthur Croft Publications, 1949.

*Griffin, Ella Washington, Manual Of Instructions For Arithmetic Workbook, New London, Conn.: Arthur Croft Publications, 1950.

*Adams, Alice D., Teacher's Answer Book To Workbook In Arithmetic, New London, Conn.: Arthur Croft Publications, 1953.

3. Brice, Edward W., Arithmetic, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963.

*4. Schorling, Raleigh, Clark, John R., Potter, Mary A., and Deady, Carroll E., Learning To Compute, Book I, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1940.

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*7. Peters, M., Going Places With Mathematics, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.

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9. U. S. Armed Forces Institute Materials.

A 030. Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Parts 1, 2, 3, Text, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
A 030.4 Instructor's Guide And Lesson Plans For A 030, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

A 031 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 4 Text, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
A 031.2 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 4 Workbook, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
A 031.4 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 4 Instructor's Guide, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

B 032 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 5 Text, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
B 032.2 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 5 Workbook, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
B 032.4 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 5 Instructor's Guide, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

B 033 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 6 Text, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
B 033.2 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 6 Workbook, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
B 033.4 Arithmetic For Everyday Life, Part 6 Instructor's Guide, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

A 034 Basic Arithmetic I, Part 7 Text And Workbook, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
A 034.4 Basic Arithmetic I, Part 7 Instructor's Guide And Key To Problems, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

A 035 Basic Arithmetic II, Part 8 Text And Workbook, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
A 035.4 Basic Arithmetic II, Part 8 Instructor's Guide And Key To Answers, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

C 150 Review Arithmetic, Textbook I, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 150.02 Review Arithmetic, Textbook II, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 150.1 Review Arithmetic, Study Guide, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 150.2 Review Arithmetic, Workbook, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 150.4 Review Arithmetic, Instructor's Guide, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

C 151 Mathematics To Use (Text), Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 151.1 General Mathematics I, Study Guide, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 151.55 Information And Suggestions For Use With Lessons On Film, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents.

C 152 Mathematics To Use (Text), Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 152.1 General Mathematics II, Study Guide, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents.
C 152.55 Information And Suggestions For Use With Lessons On Film, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents.

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*11. TMI-Grolier, Elementary Arithmetic: Addition and Subtraction Facts, New York: Teaching Materials Corporation, A Division of Grolier Inc., 1962.

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*__________, Decimal Numbers-Volumes 1 and 2, New York: Teaching Materials Corporation, A Division of Grolier Inc., 1961.

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__________, Whole Numbers and Numerals-Supplement, Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

__________, Teacher's Manual-Whole Numbers and Numerals, Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

__________, Arithmetic of the Whole Numbers-Sections 1 and 2, Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

__________, Arithmetic of the Whole Numbers-Supplement, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

__________, Teacher's Manual-Arithmetic of the Whole Numbers, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

General Programmed Teaching Corporation, Ratios and Prorations, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

Bobrow, Daniel G., Basic Mathematics-Measurement, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

__________, Basic Mathematics-Measurement, Supplement, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

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__________, Basic Mathematics-Supplement, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1962.

__________, Basic Mathematics-Teachers Manual, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1962.

Smith, James A., Modern Mathematics for the Junior High School-Sections 1, 2, 3, and 4, New York; Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

__________, Modern Mathematics for the Junior High School-Supplement, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

__________, Modern Mathematics for the Junior High School-Tests, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

_________, *Modern Mathematics for the Junior High School-Teacher's Manual*, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Inc., 1963.

Murphy, Daniel P., *Seventh Grade Mathematics-Sections 1, 2, 3 and 4*, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

_________, *Seventh Grade Mathematics-Supplement*, New York: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1962.

13. Smith, M. Daniel, *Decimals and Per Cents*, Chicago: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964.

14. Universal Electronics Laboratories Corporation, *Arithmetic-Grade Level 4 through 6*, Hackensack, New Jersey: Mark-Master, A Division of Electronics Laboratories Corporation, 1963.

_________, *Arithmetic-Grade Level 7 through 9*, Hackensack, New Jersey: Mark-Master, A Division of Electronics Laboratories Corporation, 1963.

15. Univox Institute, *Arithmetic-Units 1 through 12*, New York: Univox Institute, Inc., 1961.

Comments About the Bibliography

Much of the material evaluated is supplementary in nature. This is particularly true of level three where little has been done to provide separate, basic material for adults as their needs at this point closely parallel the vocational-academic materials of the regular school program. In some instances not all the titles in a series have been evaluated. For example, The Congo River Into Central Africa, placed at Level Two, Supplementary, is one selection in a series of nine titles about great rivers around the world published by Garrard Publishing Co. The titles from the Harr-Wagner Adventure Series, levels one and two, are other examples.

Materials are included that represent the wide variety of free and inexpensive materials available from private corporations, councils, and agencies. Often such material contains story content closely related to adult interests, written at the appropriate level, and provides useful supplementary reading material. Examples are the Money Management material from Household Finance Corporation and the technical pamphlets from General Motors.

A considerable quantity of material is available for use in teaching English as a second language. Many excellent programs have been conducted in this area in past years. Much could be learned from these programs for teaching English to native-born groups. However, only a few such materials felt to have direct application to native literacy training, were evaluated. While similarities do exist, the learning tasks--particularly in the language areas--are quite different in the two programs. Definitive research is lacking in regard to the transfer of successful techniques from one area to another. Unfortunately, in the past and in many of the programs observed, the two groups were placed together for instruction and treated as one in spite of their significant differences in background and needs in terms of language development.

A list is included giving the available arithmetic materials which could prove useful in adult basic education programs. Also, arithmetic is often included in other material listed where it forms part of a broad approach in skills development. The arithmetic materials have not been systematically evaluated, only those which the review panel thought would be particularly helpful have been included.

A number of different approaches to teach beginning reading are being tried with regular school populations. These include: programs attempting to aid in clarifying English orthography by supplementation to or color coding of the alphabet; programs emphasizing phonics; a programed approach oriented toward perception; and a programed approach based on linguistics. The following materials represent broadly based, systematic approaches to reading instruction. Although the story content and interest level is oriented primarily toward children and adolescents, they may have some value, and in fact, are often advertised as adult literacy materials.

Buchanan, Cynthia Dee, Teacher's Guide to Programmed Reading, Book 1, New York: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963.

Facts About the Phonovisual Method, Washington, D.C.: Phonovisual Products Inc.

Gattengno, C., *Words in Color*: *Background and Principles*, Chicago: Learning Materials, Inc., 1962.

Mazurkiewicz, Albert J. and Tanyzer, Harold J., *i/t/a Teacher's Manual and Key*, New York: Initial Teaching Alphabet Publications, Inc., 1963

Educational Development Laboratories, Huntington, New York.

Arithmetic programs including number facts, story problems, mental arithmetic.

EDL Controlled Reader programs include readiness and pre-primer, comprehension power and story filmstrips from a beginning to college level.

EDL Flash-X Tachistoscope programs include readiness for reading and arithmetic, sight vocabulary, spelling, and vocabulary development.

EDL Tach-X Tachistoscope filmstrips include readiness and beginning instruction in reading and arithmetic to college-adult levels.

EDL Word Clues Series, a vocabulary improvement program for junior high school and beyond.

Spelling programs for grades seven through nine.

Garrard Publishing Co., Champaign, Illinois.

Supplemental teaching aids

Reading readiness

Sight materials

Sounding materials

Independent reading

Arithmetic learning series

Miscellaneous items

Learning Through Seeing, Inc., Sunland, California.

Tachist-O-Filmstrips

Instant Words

Instant Word Phrases

Number Recognition

Smith, Donald E. P. and Kelingos, Judith M., *Michigan Successive Discrimination Language Program: Manual*, *A Program for Teachers*, Ann Arbor, Michigan: Ann Arbor Publishers, 1964.

The Accelerated Progressive Choice Reading Program:

Woolman, Myron, *Reading in High Gear; Instructor's Manual, Cycle 1, Segments 1, 2, 3, 4,* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1964.

In addition to the materials received for evaluation, a number of publishing companies have films, filmstrips, slides, instructional games, etc., available for regular school groups. Much of this material can be used in supplementing instruction in adult basic education classes. Following is a list of a number of such publishers with representative materials. (For specific listings of materials, the reader is referred to the catalogs of published materials available from the publisher.)

Continental Press Incorporated, Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania.

Stencils are available for use in duplicating a wide variety of practice exercises in reading and arithmetic.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago, Illinois

Arithmetic (Primary)

Educational Guidance (Basic Study Skills)

Language Arts

Mathematics

Reading Improvement

United States History

Phonics Practice

Phrase Mastery

Prefix and Suffix Mastery

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(1) Clymer, Theodore, "Tables for Rapid Computation of Spache Readability Scores," Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota, 1962.

(2) Dale, Edgar E. and Chall, J. S., "A Formula for Predicting Readability," Educational Research Bulletin, 27:11-20, January, 1948.

(3) __________, "A Formula for Predicting Readability: Instructions," Educational Research Bulletin, 27:37-54, February, 1948.

(4) Spache, George, "A New Readability Formula for Primary Grade Reading Materials," Elementary School Journal, 53:410-13, March, 1953

(5) Ward, Betty A. and Brice, Edward W. Literacy and Basic Education for Adults: A Selected Annotated Bibliography. U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 19, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1961. 126 pp.

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PART III

REVIEW OF RESEARCH
ON
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, TESTS, METHODS, AND PROGRAMS FOR ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION

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PART III

REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, TESTS, METHODS, AND PROGRAMS FOR ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION

Research in Adult Literacy Education is moving slowly through its initial stages of development. This section of the report deals primarily with the literacy materials, methods, and programs for the undereducated adult. It should be pointed out that the research reviewed in this section represents the bulk of the research conducted and reported in this field. For the most part the research conducted thus far has been done only by persons directly involved with Adult Literacy Education, and very little has been conducted by persons from disciplines related to education.

Materials

Developmental

The *Publishers Weekly*[1] reported the findings of the U.S. Office of Education "Task Force" in its review and appraisal of existing instructional materials in this area. The "Task Force" found "a serious shortage of materials for teaching basic reading skills, especially word recognition skills." Most materials stressed basic vocabulary instead of recognizing the vocabulary already possessed by adults. Also, a series to integrate reading, language, and arithmetic was almost totally lacking. The existing materials did not take into account the sophistication or the interests of the intended reader, nor were they written on a functional level to aid in teaching the skills of practical grammar, letter-writing, good speech, etc.

Kempfer[2] took a survey of 56 librarians and evening school principals in the United States, asking them, "At what grade levels of readability is there the greatest shortage of suitable reading materials for adults?" The upper elementary levels were mentioned most frequently. In addition, these librarians and principals felt that citizenship, homemaking, and family life and parent education were the areas with the most acute needs. The validity of these results, which are somewhat outdated, depends a great deal upon how closely the librarians and principals worked with adults of low reading ability.

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[1] Publishers Weekly. "'War On Poverty': Book Publishers' Role in Adult Education Job Training." (Report of conference sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education and American Textbook Publishers Institute.) *Publishers Weekly*. 185:38-50, February, 1964.

[2] Kempfer, Homer. "Simpler Reading Materials Needed for 50,000,000 Adults." *School Life*. 32:115-127. May, 1950.

Dale and Tyler[3] tried to discover the factors influencing the difficulty of reading materials. They used samples of personal health materials with groups of colored adults who had a low reading ability. The number of different technical words in a selection was found to be the factor most closely associated with difficulty of comprehension. Next in line was the number of nontechnical words in the selection unknown by 90 percent of sixth grade pupils.

To test Basic Fundamentals of Reading and Spelling (a linguistic approach) Levi[4] used 204 subjects from Chicago, 128 of whom were adults with an average schooling of 5.8 years. After 99 hours of prescribed instruction, the mean difference between pre- and post-test scores of these adults was 4.6 with a standard deviation of .65. However, these figures must be interpreted cautiously since it is not exactly clear what this gain represents. Two of the tests used had norms based on elementary school population, and, in addition, no apparent effort was made to incorporate a control group.

A more structured experiment was conducted by Henney[5] using the Family Phonics System with 30 inmates of a penal institution. These subjects were divided into three groups: a control group; an experimental group (A), which received one to one tutorial instruction; and an experimental group (B), which received group instruction. He found that 20 one-hour sessions increased the reading ability by as much as 2.5 grade levels for the functionally illiterate inmates, and it made little difference whether the teaching-learning situation was on a group or on a one to one basis.

Another experiment conducted in a reformatory was directed by Allen.[6] The Laubach literacy films were used for instruction of 288 inmates, 108 of whom graduated from the program. The films used 49 hours, and extra sessions were used for classrooms instruction, review, practice, and drill. The subjects had a claimed median educational experience of 5.8 years but a mean measured educational achievement score of 1.97. Those completing the course increased an average of 2.5 grades in reading, vocabulary, and spelling. The results must be viewed with caution since the sampling technique used was unidentified, no control group was used for comparison, and the test instruments had norms based on school children. Also, the results from the two previous field test efforts cannot be generalized because of the confined population involved.

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[3] Dale, Edgar and Tyler, Ralph W. "A Study of the Factors Influencing the Difficulty of Reading Materials for Adults of Limited Reading Ability." *Library Quarterly*. 4:384-412. July, 1934.

[4] Levi, Mort. "Teamwork Foundation Test Results." Chicago: Teamwork Foundation. 1964. 4 pp.

[5] Henney, R. Lee. *Summary of Reading Instruction by a Phonic Method for Functionally Illiterate Adults at the Indiana Reformatory*. Doctor's dissertation. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University. 1964.

[6] Allen, Dana W. *An Experiment in Education with the Laubach Literacy Films*. Syracuse, N.Y.: New Readers Press. 1961. 89 pp.

Henney[7] again tested the Family Phonics System, apparently not limited this time to a penal institution setting. The improvement in scores ranged from 3.5 to 7.4 grade levels after 160 hours of instruction, and he reported a significant difference between the gains in reading ability of the members of the experimental groups and the gains of the control group. The results of this field test effort can be questioned on the basis of: some of the test instruments used; the lack of a description of the control group; the apparent absence of any effort to match the experimental and control groups.

Tests

As emphasized earlier in the report, the work with adult illiterates seems ignored if compared with the amount of research reports and publications available in other critical educational fields. This paucity of research is particularly noticeable when looking for reliable and valid tests of intelligence and reading ability for the illiterate or semi-illiterate adult population. The majority of these tests were normalized on the basis of scores from samples of children, literate adults, or some other segment of society, making it difficult to interpret the results of these tests when given to adult illiterates. Very few tests have been developed specifically to measure the native ability of an adult who cannot read or who is limited in his reading capacity. And what has been developed, in general, has not been adequately tested.

However, some standardized tests are being used to test undereducated adults, as observed in some of the programs visited by the consultants (see pp. 72-74), as reported in correspondence with other programs, and as found from a review of some pertinent literature. Following is a summary of general evaluations (as abstracted from Buros[8] and Anastasi[9]) of general ability measures most popular in studies of the undereducated adult populations:

1. Arthur Point Scale of Performance Tests

This non-verbal test does not include the complex, speeded, form boards that were a part of previous performance tests. Still, time is a factor--in some subtests the best time of three trials is recorded, in others there is a time limit, though the subject is told it is not a speed test. The administrator must be trained and experienced with this particular test to use it effectively. Normalizing basis--school children.

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[7] Henney, R. Lee. "The Family Phonics System." Indianapolis, Ind.: Board for Fundamental Education, 1964 (a).

[8] Buros, Oscar Krisen, ed., *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (*Third*, *Fourth*, and *Fifth*), Highland Park (N.J.): The Gryphon Press, 1949, 1954, 1959.

[9] Anastasi, Anne, *Psychological Testing*, New York: The MacMillan Company, 1961.

2. Gates Basic Reading Tests

With several strong points, it needs some important improvements. The use of the reading grades and reading ages is of doubtful value for higher grades and older ages. Normalizing basis--school children.

3. Gates Primary Reading Tests

This timed test will serve to discriminate for those deficient in sight word vocabulary and sentence and paragraph reading. However, it is probably valid only for grades 1.5-2.5. Normalizing basis--school children.

4. Gates Reading Survey

Developed to measure vocabulary, level of comprehension, speed and accuracy, this test has received a favorable reaction. It is untimed except, of course, for the speed and accuracy subtest. The scoring method should be improved. Normalizing basis--school children.

5. Gilmore Oral Reading Test

This test is recommended for its "obvious" validity (though not proven) and its well-constructed record book, but it is especially recommended because no special training is needed to administer it satisfactorily and it can be scored in an objective fashion. It was designed for use in grades 1-8 to test accuracy, comprehension, and rate. However, there is a lower reliability for comprehension and rate score; this reliability is particularly low for older adult groups. There is no time limit, but the amount of time required to read the given paragraphs is recorded to compute the rate score. Normalizing basis--school children.

6. The Gray-Votaw-Rogers General Achievement Tests

Comparing favorably with similar tests in the field, the 1948-1951 version of the Gray-Votaw-Rogers is commendable for its clear format, unambiguously stated questions, and balanced coverage of the total curriculum. It can be adversely criticized for the inadequacy of the norms sample (school children) and/or its description, the low reliabilities of the separate part scores, and the unnecessarily complicated statistical methods. Spelling seems to be the only test not speeded at any of the levels.

7. Metropolitan Achievement Tests

This test is commendable for its expansion of the test manual as an aid to users, thorough and expert standardization of the tests, and its provision of varied norms. However, it is rigid in its tendency towards old subject matter, its content emphasizes facts instead of understanding and application, and some of the tests may be speeded, though substantial data is not available. The reading tests at the elementary level are less satisfactory than at the primary level.

8. Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Tests (Alpha Form)

These picture tests can be given orally or written, so successful use of these test does not depend on the reading ability of the examinee. Normalizing basis--school children.

9. Personnel Tests for Industry

This low-level intelligence battery is composed of three subtests, which can be used individually or together. Normalizing basis--semiliterate adults.

a. Langmuir Oral Directions Test

Reported to be of excellent quality and workable in group situations, this 15-minute mental ability test is available on either a record or tape, making it paced rather than timed. It is simple to administer, has quite a range of coverage, and is easy to score. Valuable in obtaining a rough estimate of the intelligence of semiliterates, it does not seem quite so valid for those with higher education.

b. Wesman Verbal Test

This test shows enough promise to justify further experiments on a low-level, but it is not likely to discriminate among high school graduates. It is supposed to be a power test, not a speed test, but only 5 minutes are allowed to answer 50 questions.

c. Doppelt Numerical Test

Further experiments would also be justified with this 20-minute test.

10. Pintner Non-Language Mental Test

This test was not generally recommended at this time. Normalizing basis--school children.

11. Raven's Progressive Matrices: A Perceptual Test of Intelligence

Though this test attempts to measure general intelligence through a single modality of performance, it fills a critical gap for a discriminatory, nonverbal and culture-free test of general intelligence. All in all, it shows much promise, having applicability to testing groups or individuals without a time limit. It was designed to measure the intelligence of people from age six through adulthood, but it does not discriminate as well as it should at the adult level.

12. SRA Achievement Series

This series is commendable for its highly reliable part-scores, well-described and generally sound developmental procedures, appropriate scope and content, and the inclusion of a "language perception" test at grade levels 2-4, though its general ability to measure poor learners at this level is dependent upon chance scores and, thus, entirely unsatisfactory. The tests are unspeeded.

13. Stanford Achievement Test (1953 Revision)

In general, the Stanford received favorable reviews as a valuable test if it is interpreted intelligently. Its testing techniques are more "lifelike" than some, but the validity of the subject-matter areas is dependent upon the curriculum. The time limit seems ample, and speed should be a factor only with the extremely slow. Normalizing basis--school children.

14. Stanford Achievement Test: Reading

As a separate or integral part of the Stanford Achievement Test, this test is among the best of its kind because of its format, standardization and norms, ease of scoring, and the availability of off-year printings of the test. However, the test is to be closely timed, there are more accurate reading-comprehension tests available, and it requires written answers, enhancing validity at the second level. Also, there could have been better selection of content, and its full and proper use is difficult except for those experienced with this test. Normalizing basis--high school students.

15. Stanford-Binet Scale (Revised)

As one of the oldest tests in popular use, the Stanford-Binet still is good and is especially useful in long-term studies. It is the best available for adequately measuring intellectual abilities of adults with mental ages below 6 or 7 years. Normalizing basis--school children.

16. Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale

The WAIS stands alone as a measuring device of adult intelligence for 16-year-olds and over. The norms are based on a representative sample of the entire U.S. population. However, it does not discriminate at the extremes of intelligence as well as the Stanford-Binet.

17. Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children

Though it has been used for adult illiterates, the WISC was designed for ages 5-15 and, therefore, does not seem appropriate for adults.

Performance and non-language tests may be an answer for testing illiterates. Those mentioned in Anastasi include: the Seguin Form Board, suitable for low mental ages; A. H. Knox's test for foreign-speaking immigrants; Porteus Maxe Tests; the civilian revision of the Army Examination Beta, called the Revised Beta Examination (originally designed for illiterates, it is now used in mass industries employing many persons with foreign background or with little education); Leither International Performance Scale; IPAT Culture Free Intelligence Test (Scale 2); Semantic Test of Intelligence (seemingly better than the Army Beta); and the Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test.

Gray[10] adds some reading tests for adults to the list: the Reading Placement Test developed by Home and Family Life Series; the Adult Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2, as developed by the Institute of Educational Research at Columbia; and the Watts-Vernon Silent Reading Test, though this had not been published at the time of Gray's publication (1956).

Methods

The interim report of the Norfolk experiment directed by Cooper[11] relates the use of team teaching with four closely matched groups of "hard-core unemployed," the majority of whom did not pass the General Aptitude Test Battery. The main experimental group were given intensive instruction in general education as well as technical training; the subsidiary experimental group received only the technical training. The main control group was tested only at the beginning and end of the project, while the subsidiary control group received guidance and occupational information on a bi-monthly basis to test the "Hawthorne Effect." The intermediate results reported by Brooks[12] showed that 90 of the 100 men in the two experimental groups graduated and all of the graduates were placed on jobs, mostly in their respective fields.

Peerson[13] directed an experiment which involved television instruction of illiterates with Laubach's Streamlined English and supplementary materials. Classes utilizing direct teaching were organized for those areas with poor television reception. One-fifth of the groups of 608 subjects had a minimum of five years of schooling, and one-fifth had had no previous schooling, so the typical grade level was at two or three years. After approximately 98 hours of TV instruction and review sessions, the groups was given a standardized test to compare these adults with a national norm of school children. On most levels the adults' results compared with children is about halfway through the second grade. The data suggested "that television teaching is less effective than the person-to-person procedure in developing the skills of connected reading."

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[10] Gray, William S., The Teaching of Reading and Writing, Paris: UNESCO, 1956, p. 181 and p. 187.

[11] Cooper, William, director. Training the Hard-Core Unemployed. Cooperative Research Monograph, No. 13, Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1964.

[12] Brooks, Lyman B. "The Norfolk State College Experiment in Training the Hard-Core Unemployed." Phi Delta Kappan 46:111-16; November 1964.

[13] Peerson, Nell, project director. Eradication of Adult Illiteracy by Television Instruction. Florence, Alabama: the Director (217 East Irvine Ave.); August 1961.

Using these same TV lessons with Laubach materials, Holst[14] reported the results of tests given to 61 enrollees. The total group was composed of interested home viewers and students enrolled in 31 Memphis centers. The average grade level achievement scores were at the 2.5 grade level or above with the total average achievement at 2.8. However, no pre-test scores were used; and a description of the sample was not given.

The programing method was tried with adult illiterates by Crohn.[15] Intermediate data indicated a need for further training in visual discrimination and an increase in the use of context as stimuli support.

Programs

As a result of a 1955 survey of 30 programs, Cass[16] identified some common problems of administrators, some successful methods and techniques, training and recruitment practices, and a general overview of the structural organization of adult basic education programs. This survey can be critized for the lack of an effort to select a random sample to represent the total picture of adult basic education programs.

From a study to determine the literacy level of able-bodied persons receiving public assistance in Cook County, Illinois, Brooks[17] reported that the majority of the sample were Negro women aged 32.8 years who came primarily from broken homes and the majority were separated, divorced, widowed, or had been deserted. As a result of this study it was recommended that the following type program be established to serve these people:

1) The program should be divided into two levels--fifth grade and below and above fifth grade;

2) The program must be broad in scope, yet each subject matter area should be concentrated to enable the adults to contribute not only financially but also culturally to their community.

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[14] Holst, Howard, managing director. "Summary of the Literacy Projects." Memphis, Tenn.: the Director (WKNO-TV, Box 642, Memphis State University), 1959.

[15] Crohn, Burrill L. "The Diebold Literacy Project: Programing for the Illiterate Adult." Programed Instruction III, 9:6-7, 9, 12, New York: The Center for Programed Instruction, 1964.

[16] Cass, Angelica W. Adult Elementary Education. New York: Noble and Noble, 1956.

[17] Brooks, Deton J. The Blackboard Curtain: A Study to Determine the Literacy Level of Able-Bodied Persons Receiving Public Assistance. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1963.

3) The program should provide special training in areas such as health, hygiene, and personal adjustment

4) The adult should be placed in a class only after testing, being interviewed by expert teachers, and counseling by competent counselors in order to identify all of his inadequacies which must be corrected for him to live in today's community.

This study also pointed out that there was no correlation between the last grade of school completed and the level at which the individual was functioning at the time of the study. To date there has been no reported depth evaluation of this program.

Other Areas

Since very little knowledge had been accumulated on the actual performance of the uneducated group of inductees during World War II, Ginzberg and Bray[18] chose a representative sample of 400 from the 303,000 illiterates received by the Army for training in basic literacy subjects. The "typical trainee" came from a community of under 5,000, completed more than four years of schooling, was single and self-supporting, and had no evidence of having been in trouble with the law. Of the 400 selected, 343 graduated from this basic program. The evaluating criteria emphasized the length of service, the type of discharge, the amount of time lost for medical and disciplinary reasons, and whether or not the man was discharged prior to the normal termination of his period of service. Thirty-eight percent of 331 graduates were rated "good" or "very good" in performance, 49 percent performed "acceptably," and only 13 percent were considered a loss to the Army. In addition, about 50 percent of these graduates applied to the Veteran's Administration for educational benefits after leaving the service.

Altus[19] was interested in the relationship between vocabulary and literacy when intelligence was constant. He administered several tests to 156 illiterate soldiers whose mean IQ for all eight reading levels was 77, ranging from 75-79. Literacy and vocabulary were somewhat related, "though the effect of one upon the other appears to operate in rather narrow limits."

Brooks[20] directed a study to determine the literacy level of those who were receiving public aid although they were physically able to work. The sample consisted of 680 adults on relief, most of whom were Negro women from broken homes with a median grade completion of 9.5 years. Only 6.6 percent had not completed five years of schooling. When a standardized test was administered to each and the scores compiled, however, 50.7 percent of the total sample tested at or below the functionally illiterate level (fifth grade reading ability).

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[18] Ginzberg, Eli and Bray, Douglas W. The Uneducated. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953.

[19] Altus, William D. "The Relationship Between Vocabulary and Literacy When Intelligence is Held Constant." The Journal of Social Psychology 31:299-301; 1950b.

[20] Brooks, Deton J. The Blackboard Curtain: A Study to Determine the Literacy Level of Able-Bodied Persons Receiving Public Assistance. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1963.

Conclusions

From the lack of basic and applied research in adult basic education, and the tremendous emphasis now being placed upon this aspect of education, it is apparent that without a great deal of further sound research this field will continue to be little more than the present conglomeration of "hit or miss" programs, that, in general, exist today. Well designed research is badly needed in such related areas as sociology and anthropology in order that teachers and administrators in the field may better understand the illiterate adult, his environment, and his "society." Research is needed, too, in areas such as learning, motivation, teaching methods and techniques, and teacher training techniques.

The reviews of field testing that have been completed and reported point up a need for the development of a sound design strategy for future field testing of instructional materials in order that it may be more meaningful. Too, much additional work must be done in the area of developing instructional materials that will meet the needs of the adult illiterate.

Finally, it appears that there is a real need to accurately identify the "functionally illiterate" segment of the population. From observations made in this project it is noted that there were a great many adults who had completed more than five years of school yet whose reading skills were lower than fifth grade. Even though these people were truly "functional illiterates," they would not be so classified by the Bureau of the Census definition. This study indicated that there may be as many as 50 percent more "functional illiterates" today than is indicated by current census data.

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12. Gray, William S., *The Teaching of Reading and Writing*, Paris: UNESCO, 1956.

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17. Levi, Mort. "Teamwork Foundation Test Results." Chicago: Teamwork Foundation, 1964. 4 pp.

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19. Publishers Weekly. "'War on Poverty': Book Publishers' Role in Adult Education Job Training." (Report of conference sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education and American Textbook Publishers Institute). Publishers Weekly 185:38-50; February 17, 1964.

APPENDIX A

OBJECTIVES OF THE PROJECT

A. To develop an integrated review of tested adult literacy instructional materials at the functional level.

B. To develop a catalogued list of such available adult literacy instructional materials.

C. To observe selected adult literacy programs currently in operation within the continental United States in order to make recommendations concerning the appropriateness of materials being used, methods employed, etc., in light of the needs of retraining programs.

APPENDIX B

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Proposed Format for Teacher Training Institute Program

1. Lectures

   a. General Survey of Teaching Adults--8:00 and 9:00 a.m., daily

   To be taken by all participants. One-half of the group would take it at 8:00 and the other half at 9:00. Planned to serve as a foundation for other institute activities. The course will develop an understanding of the basic principles and theories relative to the following:

   ---Psychological and sociological differences of the adult illiterate
   ---Adult learning
   ---Adult education methods and techniques
   ---Group dynamics as a tool
   ---Human relations
   ---Identifying adult illiterate needs

   b. General Survey of Teaching Reading to Adult Illiterates--8:00 and 9:00 a.m. daily

   To be taken by all participants with course "a" and should serve as a strong foundation for developing a good understanding of methods and materials to be employed in developing their own teaching materials. Will also serve as a foundation for the seminars, labs, and practicums. Designed to develop an understanding of the principles relative to:

   ---The process of reading
   ---Word attack skills
   ---The comprehension, rate, and study skills
   ---Problems of readability
   ---Motivation and reading interests
   ---Developing maturity in reading
   ---Causes of reading disability

2. Laboratory Sessions--10:00 to 11:50 a.m., Monday and Wednesday

   The staff will carry joint responsibility for this phase. Lab sessions will be related to the lectures as follows:

   a. Demonstrations and practice in the use of adult teaching methods and techniques.

   b. Participants will be expected to review and evaluate available materials and develop some degree of competency in developing their own teaching materials.

   c. During the latter stages of the institute the participants, with guidance from staff, will develop a tentative teaching plan.

3. Supervised Practicum--10:00 to 4:50 p.m., Tuesday and Thursday

   Staff members will supervise this segment of the institute which will relate to both the lecture and laboratory sections. The practicum sessions will require a high level of student participation as follows:

   a. On the basis of criteria to be developed in the lecture and laboratory sessions the students will spend some time each day critically reviewing and evaluating instructional materials and available testing instruments.

   b. Students will observe adult basic education classes in operation and will evaluate practices observed.

   c. Students will plan and teach lessons under the supervision of both the staff and the classroom teacher.

   d. The students will administer and interpret achievement and diagnostic tests, after demonstrations and practice administration with other institute participants.

4. Seminar--1:00 to 4:50 p.m., Monday and Wednesday

   Students will have the opportunity to explore in depth, topics related to the programs that are of interest to them and report the results of their study in the seminar sessions. The primary purpose of the seminar will be to encourage thorough study and critical discussion and evaluation of significant problems in the field. Topics and/or problems will be identified by the staff and appropriate related references will be supplied for beginning exploration.

5. Staff Conferences with Participants--10:00 a.m. to 4:50 p.m., Friday

   All staff available including classroom teachers. This consultation period is provided to allow ample time for individual consultation with participants who feel, or whom the staff feel, need additional individual help.

Proposed Institute Weekly Schedule

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:00-8:50 a.m.	Lecture	Lecture	Lecture	Lecture	Lecture
9:00-9:50 a.m.	Lecture	Lecture	Lecture	Lecture	Lecture
10:00-11:50 a.m.	Lab.	Practicum	Lab.	Practicum	Staff-trainee consultation
11:50-12:50 p.m.	Lunch - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
1:00-4:50 p.m.	Seminar	Practicum	Seminar	Practicum	Staff-trainee consultation

Institute Staffing

It is proposed that the institute be staffed by a director, assistant director, and two other professional persons, all of whom would serve on a full-time basis during the institute. It is further proposed that specialists in adult learning and motivation, psychology of the slow reader, the development of instructional material for adult illiterates, group dynamics, etc., be brought in to lecture and meet with seminars and/or laboratory sessions for periods not to exceed three days. In addition, three persons who can be identified as "master teachers," by virtue of their success in the field of teaching adult illiterates, should be employed to teach the classes that will be observed. These teachers will assist in supervising the practice teaching and will help with some of the seminar sessions.